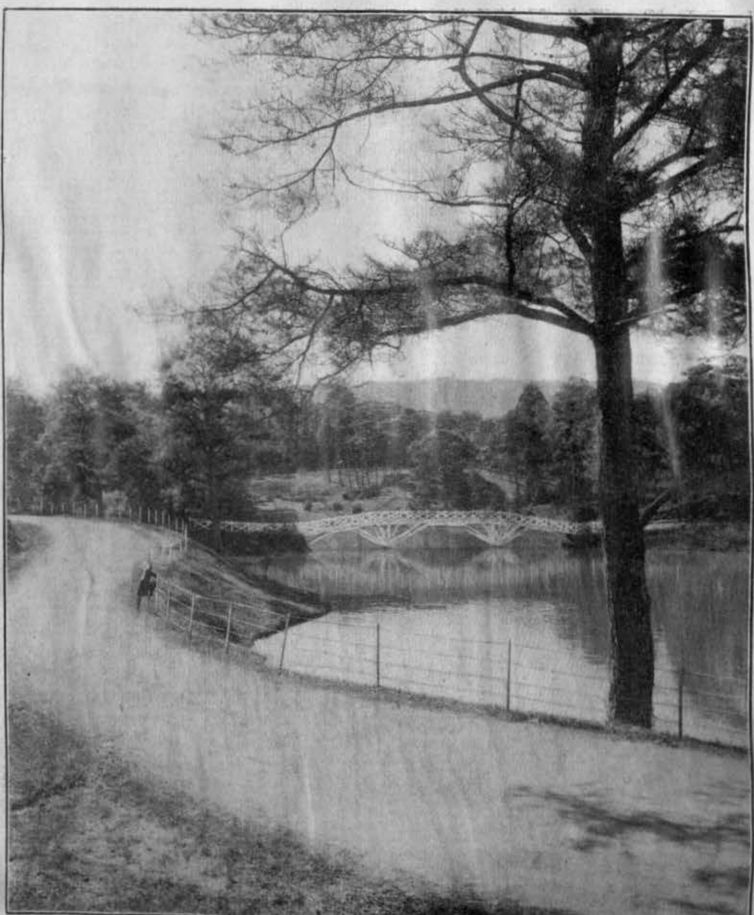


THE WARD LAKES, SHILLONG.

ASSAM DISTRICT GAZETTEERS.

VOLUME X.

THE KHASI AND JAINTIA HILLS, THE GARO HILLS AND THE LUSHAI HILLS.

BY

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PREFACE.

The tenth volume of the Assam District Gazetteer series contains the account of the Khasi and Jaintia, the Garo and the Lushai Hills. These accounts are necessarily brief, for little has been said of the interesting tribes by whom these districts are inhabited, as elaborate monographs on these tribes are now under preparation by officers who are intimately acquainted with their habits. The districts are sparsely peopled, apart from Shillong there are no towns, the system of administration is simple, and there is little of industry or commerce. There is thus but little for a Gazetteer to add to the tribal monograph. I am indebted to the various District Officers for their kindness in examining the proofs, and to Major Shakespear for his courtesy in criticising the account of the Lushai Hills, a district with which he was for so many years so intimately connected. It should be added that these Gazetteers were written before the partition of Bengal, and that wherever the word "Province" occurs it is to the old Province of Assam that reference is made.

SHILLONG :
October 1905.

B. C. ALLEN.

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CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

Area and boundaries—General appearance and mountain system—River system—Places of interest—Geology—Economic geology—Lime—Marble—Petroleum—Coal—Iron—Gold—Climate and rainfall—Storms—Earthquakes—Fauna—Flora.

Area and boundaries.

The district of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills is situated between 24°58′ and 26°7′ N. and 90°45′ and 92°51′E. and covers an area of 6,027 square miles. On the north it is bounded by Kamrup and Nowgong, on the west by the Garo Hills, on the south by Sylhet and Cachar, and on the east by the North Cachar Hills and Nowgong.

General appearance and mountain system.

The whole of the district is composed of hilly country. On the northern and western borders these hills take the form of tumbled ranges, which run for the most part north and south, and have a general height of between two and three thousand feet. For the first 27 miles after entering the district the road from Gauhati winds its way amongst these jungle covered hills. The valley bottoms near the road have been cleared and cultivated by settlers, but elsewhere there is nothing but forest to be seen. The great trees are linked together with the coils and loops of enormous creepers, and on slopes that have been cleared for cultivation and left to fallow there is a dense growth of bamboo jungle. From the top of some of the higher ridges a fine view can be obtained over range upon range of hills to the blue plains below, but there are no signs anywhere of the handiwork of man, for this steamy

and malarious tract is very sparsely peopled. Twenty miles from Shillong the road emerges from the forest, and from this point to the southern frontier of the district there are rolling grassy hills and breezy uplands which have nothing about them to suggest the East. Patches of forest are still to be seen in the valley bottoms, and here and there a pine may be descried, the advanced guard of the fragrant woods that surround Shillong. Viewed from above there is something very beautiful about this open country. There are no peaks, or rocks, or ridges, but soft rounded hills covered with fresh soft turf which from a distance take on a delicate blue green tint, and look as soft as velvet. At Barpani, the road starts on a climb of 1,800 feet to the Shillong plateau, mounting through pine woods from which peeps can now and again be had of the beautiful gorge of the Umiam. From Shillong, again, there is another rise of about 700 feet to the high plateau, which stretches from there to the latitude of Dumpep and then gradually declines in height to the edge of the hills at Cherrapunji. Here and there an isolated hill rises four or five hundred feet above the general level, but the country as a whole consists of rolling grassy downs, intersected with river valleys which in the southern portion of the district take the form of precipitous ravines. The general level of the high plateau in the centre of the district is not much below 6,000 feet, though it decreases in height towards the east and west, and the wind blows keenly over these open downs. Further south the traveller passes with strange

rapidity from the temperate to the tropical zone. The enormous rainfall of this region has hollowed out the river valleys into deep ravines, and the hot moist air at the bottom of these gullies stimulates the growth of the most luxuriant vegetation. The road passes along near the summit of the cliffs, but from far below mounts up the roar of the river hurrying to the plains, and as the clouds of mist roll aside, a glimpse is obtained of the rich rank growth of a tropical forest. The bulk of the Khasi tribe live on the high plateaus. The northern half of the district, which consists, first of open rolling hills and further north of hills covered with jungle, is known as the Bhoi country, and the inhabitants as Bhois. These Bhois are for the most part Mikirs and Lalungs, with a sprinkling of Khasis and Kacharis, but Khasis do not thrive on these lower hills and do not care to settle in this malarious country. Between Khyrim and the Bhoi country live a small tribe called the Nongtungs (the stinkers) who seem to be a cross between the Syntengs and the Mikirs. The valleys on the southern face of the hills are known as the War country.

Principal hills.

None of the hills in the central and southern portion of the district have anything of the rocky or precipitous about them. Their sides are covered with short grass, and from one direction or another they can generally be ascended by a man on horseback. On the summits of the higher hills there is often a fine grove of oaks, rhododendrons, and other trees hoary with lichen and antiquity. These groves possess a sacred character, and it is this

which has preserved them from the woodman's axe. The following is a list of the principal hills with their height:—

(1) Rableng—height, 5,671 feet. (2) Sohpetbyneng—height, about 4,000 feet. (3) Sywer—height, 6,050 feet. (4) Shillong—height, 6,450 feet. (5) Dingiei—height, 6,077 feet. (6) Kyllang—height, 5,684 feet. (7) Laitblih—height, 5,800 feet. (8) Laitdera—height, 6,000 feet. (9) Thanjinath—height, 4,448 feet. (10) Nongjrong—height, 4,995 feet. (11) U-Mun—height, 6,221 feet. (12) Maoflang—height, 5,931 feet. (13) Maokaling—height, 5,900 feet. (14) Marpna—height, 5,600 feet. (15) Symper—height, 5,700 feet. (16) Maosngi—height, 5,810 feet. (17) Laitmarkhan—height, 5,313 feet. (18) Nongsynrih—height, 5,585 feet. (19) Maskuin—height, 5,306 feet. (20) Nongkrong—height, 5,606 feet. (21) Kyllai—Lyngsngun—height, 5,128 feet. (22) Maolihbah—height, 4,252 feet. (23) Patermylong—height, 5,755 feet.

Rivers draining into the Surma Valley.

The high plateau that traverses the centre of the district is the watershed of the hills. The following are the principal rivers that flow towards the south into the Surma Valley. On the west there is the Jadukata, or Kynchiang, which rises on the southern slopes of the hills between Mawthadraishan and Mairang. It flows a tortuous westerly course, then makes a sharp bend towards the east, and debouches through a deep ravine on to the plains of Sunamganj. Its principal tributary is the Ka Blei which joins it from the west. Further east comes the Um Maopa, which rises to the west of the

Maoflang plateau, and falls into the Surma, a little to the west of Sunamganj. The Bogapani rises on the southern slopes of the Shillong peak, and flows westward and southward to the plains of Sylhet. The road from Shillong to Dumpep crosses it on a fine iron bridge, and the bridle path from Maoflang to Cherrapunji by a suspension bridge, situated at the bottom of a gorge of singular beauty. Near the plains the river passes the important village of Shella, and falls into the Surma a little to the west of Chhatak. The Mangot or Maheshkhali also rises near the sources of the Bogapani, but it flows eastwards and then southwards, and for a considerable distance forms the boundary between the Khasi and the Jaintia Hills. In the plains of Sylhet it is known as the Peine Gong. The Hari of Sylhet rises near Jowai and is known in the hills as the Myntdu. Other rivers that make their way towards the south are the Puang, and the Kaw Um or Lubha.

Rivers draining into the Brahmaputra.

On the north the principal rivers are the Ka-Khri, which rises a little to the east of Mairang, and is known as the Kulsi in Kamrup. The Digru rises near Sohpetbyneng, flows westward crossing the Gauhati road, and then turns north. Near the boundary of the district it again turns east, crosses the Gauhati road at Barnihat, and finally falls into the Kalang near its confluence with the Brahmaputra. The Umiam rises a little to the north of Maoflang, and flows in a deep gorge between the Dingiei range and the plateau of Shillong. At Barpani it is crossed by the Gauhati road, and from that point takes a generally easterly course, till it finally

falls into the Kapili. In the plains it is known as the Kiling. Further west comes the Umkhen which is known as the Barpani in Nowgong. The greater part of the boundary between the North Cachar and Jaintia Hills is defined by the Kapili, which pours its waters into the Kalang and so into the Brahmaputra. Its principal tributaries from the west are the Um Myntang and the Mauriang. The extent to which the waterways of the district are used as routes for traffic is discussed in the section on communications. These rivers possess the characteristics usually associated with hill streams. The bed is rocky and gravelly, the current swift, and after heavy rain even small streams come down in spathe. In places the water comes foaming and roaring over huge blocks of granite—in places the river stretches out in still clear pools of blue green water. There are several magnificent cascades in the neighbourhood of Shillong, and at Maosmai, near Cherrapunji, some of the minor streams fall over a sheer precipice many hundred feet in depth into the gorge below.

Places of interest in the district. There are several places of interest in the district which are fairly accessible from the station of Shillong. On the further side of the Umiam stands the Dingiei hill. Khasi legend has it that a tree once grew on the summit of this hill which over shadowed the whole world. The Khasis tried to fell the tree in order to let in the sun, but during the night the wood always grew again in the place where it had been cut away by day. After a time the people dis-

covered that every night a tiger came and licked the wounded part, and that this caused the wood to grow again with marvellous rapidity. The Khasis accordingly tied their daos edge outwards round the place, the tiger cut its tongue and forsook the tree, and the work was successfully completed. Heaven and earth were in those days very close together, and heaven was joined by an umbilical cord to the navel of the earth at Sohpetbyneng. When the tree was felled the cord was broken and the two worlds drifted apart from one another. There are two routes from Shillong to the summit of Dingiei. One is a foot path which drops straight to the gorge of the Umiam. For a height of about 1,000 feet on either side of the river the gradient is ex tremely steep, almost precipitous, and this portion of the path would be quite impracticable for a beast of burthen. By the other route the traveller can drive to Barpani by the Gauhati road, and from there the ascent is much more gradual and can be negotiated by a pony. On a clear day a magnificent view is obtained during almost the whole of the ascent from Barpani, over the rolling Bhoi country which lies some 3,000 feet below the summit of Dingiei. Dumpep, which is close to the high peak of Sywer, from which a magnificent view can be obtained on a clear day over the southern hills and the plains of Sylhet, is also easy of access. So is Maoflang, and from Maoflang there is a charming walk to the gorge of the Bogapani over 1,000 feet below. The river lies in a series of blue green pools connected with short rapids at the bottom of a ravine which recalls the passes on the Italian side of the Alps.

The Kyllang rock.

From Maoflang it is a pleasant trip to the Kyllang rock. There is a bridle path to Mairang 15 miles away, where there is an inspection bungalow. From there it is about seven miles to the hill itself. The Kyllang rock rises out of rolling grassy downs, a sheer cliff of granite upwards of 700 feet in height. On the east and north-east the rock has been to some extent disintegrated, trees have obtained a foothold in the crevices, and the ascent is fairly easy. On the west and south-west it is a sheer dome, with an absolutely smooth and unbroken surface. The effect of this mighty precipice suddenly rising from soft, undulating grass land is singular to a degree, and the spectator cannot but wonder how this huge mass of rock ever found its way into such incongruous surroundings. The explanation offered is that the Kyllang is a gigantic specimen of a phenomenon which, on a very much smaller scale, is extremely common in the hills. Scattered about the whole granitic area are huge boulders of rock imbedded in, and of a similar character to the general mass, though much more highly indurated. The Kyllang rock is simply one of these boulders, but a boulder framed on a titanic scale.* According to Khasi legend the Kyllang rock was originally a man. He is married to Thadlasken, a small pool near Jowai, and when he goes to visit his wife violent storms blow across the hills. The Kyllang rock is also said to have fought with another conical hill in the neighbourhood called Symper and to have been defeated.

* *Vide* Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. 1, Part III. 55.

Places of interest in the Jaintia Hills.

Jowai itself is well worth a visit, as the path there runs through charming scenery where grassy meadows and woods of oak recall the parks of England. At Wahjajer, a little to the west of Jowai, a path turns off to Nartiang, where there are remains of the Hinduism of the Jaintia Rajas, while the Khasi religion is represented by some of the largest monoliths in the hills. At Nongkhlih, near the borders of the North Cachar Hills, there are a great number of natural limestone monoliths, which viewed from the hill above look like the ruins of some regimental lines. From Bataw, 28 miles south-east of Jowai there is a magnificent view on one side, over the plains of Sylhet, on the other, across the hills and the gorge of the Myntdu. On the summit of the hill there is a large pond which is almost worthy of the name of lake, and the dense orange groves in the vicinity add much to the charms of a scene already beautiful.

Hot springs and caves.

Nongkhlao has historical associations of interest, and at this point the old Gauhati road crosses the beautiful gorge of the Khri river. There are hot springs on the right bank of the Kapili beyond Jowai. One of the springs is a pool of hot water about six feet square, the other is a sulphur spring which flows into the Kapili. There are springs also near Jakrem in the Maharam State about 14 miles as the crow flies beyond Maoflang. There are interesting caves at Cherrapunji, and also at Rupnath which is about two miles from the inspection bungalow at Syndai, 22 miles from Jowai on the Jowai-Jaintiapur path. Another cave at Lakadong was thus described by Mr. Ringwood in 1876."

Mr. Oldham's description of the hills.

Mr. Thomas Oldham has left on record the following conclusions with regard to the geology of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills.*

"I shall here briefly enunciate a few of the principal conclusions resulting from a general view of the previous descriptions of the geological structure of these hills. These are: that the general basis of the range is granite; resting upon it is a series of metamorphic rocks, gneiss, micaceous slates, quartz rocks, &c., which have been greatly altered, disturbed, and contorted by the granite which now supports them; that in connection with these changes there appears to be evidence to show that the line of greatest elevation caused by this granite, or rather by the forces to which this granite is the index, had a direction east and west. Subsequently to these disturbances and alterations of the older slates, these rocks have been subjected to long-continued and great wear and denudation; and upon their degraded surface was deposited a series of beds of sandy and earthy character, of varying composition, but in the aggregate, of considerable thickness, which have subsequently been subjected to great alteration. Another interval of considerable duration must now have occurred, during which disturbing forces were again exerted; for, upon the upturned and degraded edges of these schistose and quartzose beds, others have been formed of very different character, the prevailing composition of which is sandy, and which, as a mass, give abundant evidence of being shallower water deposits than the lower beds.

Again disturbances have taken place, contortions of these beds have been forcibly produced by the exertion of great forces of intrusion and pressure; and these forces appear to have been accompanied, if not produced, by the exhibition, on a considerable scale, and over a considerable area, of volcanic-like masses, which have been emitted in a highly heated condition, and have consequently exerted those modifying effects which might be expected to result from such an exhibition of heated masses on the large scale.

Above and upon these again, another series of beds of varying character, sandstones, limestones, and coal, of considerable aggregate thickness, was formed. Throughout the whole of this series, from

* Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. I, Part II, p. 168.

top to bottom, in the conglomerates found at its base, in the clean sandstones higher in the series, in the fossils found in these beds, in the irregularity of their development and the constantly repeated occurrence of current marking and "false bedding," there is sufficient evidence to prove that the entire group, not less than two thousand feet in thickness, has been deposited and formed in water of no great depth. The same evidence is extended by the organic contents of the limestones. To admit of this occurring, there must have been a gradual and continuous depression of the surface within this area, maintained during the deposition of the whole of the series These sandstones have subsequently been invaded by igneous rocks which have been forcibly intruded among them, and have produced considerable alteration in their texture and structure. There is no evidence to show the exact period at which such intrusion took place; but it must have been subsequently to the formation of all the sandstones.

The whole succession of groups has been subsequently elevated until it attained its present position. There is no sufficient evidence to show whether this elevation, or rather, the commencement of this elevation, was synchronous with or not, or was caused by or accompanied by, the intrusion of the trappean rocks.

The elevation of the rocks to their present position must, however, have been gradual and long-continued, to admit of the remarkable conditions under which we find them as shown by the many detached and small outlying portions at considerable distances from the main mass.

Coincidently with and subsequent to this elevation of the hills, *en masse*, the ordinary atmospheric causes of degradation, which, owing to the peculiar climatic conditions of the district, are here exerted with great force, have been in operation to produce and modify the present aspect of the surface. And, further, the action of these forces appears to have been determined, as to the *direction* of its maximum effect, by a series of lines of jointing and fracture, and occasionally of dislocation or faulting, resulting from the earlier intrusion of the volcanic rocks.

The very gradual and continuous slope of the plains at the foot of the hills, will show that long subsequently to the period of their elevation, a sea had washed their base, and formed the widely-extended flats, from which their steep escarpments rise."

Economic geology. Lime-trade in 18th century.

The geological products of economic value are lime, coal, iron, and petroleum, by far the most important of which are lime and coal. From the earliest days of British rule the lime quarries of the Khasi Hills formed one of the principal attractions of Sylhet. The lime trade drew a large number of Europeans to that district, and it is to the indiscretions of these persons that some of the earlier Khasi forays were attributed. Mr. Robert Lindsay, Collector of Sylhet in 1778, was largely interested in the business, and describes the sources of his wealth in most poetic terms. "The chunam or lime rock is washed by the rapid stream. A magnificent cataract was seen rolling over the adjoining precipice, the scenery altogether was truly sublime. The mountain was composed of the purest alabaster lime, and appeared in quantity equal to the supply of the whole world." Of the trade of the Sylhet district he observed that "the only great staple and steady article of commerce is chunam or lime. In no part of Bengal, or even Hindustan, is the rock found so perfectly pure, or so free of alloy, as in this Province; therefore Calcutta is chiefly supplied from hence. This branch immediately attracted my attention, and I was led to investigate how far the trade could be improved or extended. I found it had hitherto been occupied by Armenians, Greeks, and low Europeans, but to a trifling extent only; while I had so greatly the advantage over them, from the command of the currency, that it was evident the trade might soon centre with me, and it accordingly did so."

Mr. Lindsay's business experienced some vicissitudes owing to the violent conduct of the Khasi chiefs, but lime no doubt contributed largely to the fortune that he was able to accumulate in Sylhet.

Development of trade by Messrs. Inglis & Co.

At the end of the eighteenth century the lime trade of Sylhet seems to have passed into the hands of the Inglis family, who enjoyed a monopoly of it for many years. The founder of the firm was Mr. George Inglis who died at Chhatak in 1850 after a residence of 56 years in the district of Sylhet. A fine obelisk which stands on a low hill from which there is a magnificent view across the rivers and swamps of Sylhet to the Khasi Hills, marks the last resting place of one of the earliest of the British pioneers in the Surma Valley. He was succeeded by his son Mr. Harry Inglis who was buried at Cherrapunji. The family obtained possession of considerable zamindaris at the foot of the plains, and so strong was their influence that they succeeded in effectually excluding all outside opposition. The administration of the Khasi Hills in the early fifties, was not much hampered by the ordinary usages of law, and the complaints preferred against Mr. Inglis by his would-be rivals form somewhat curious reading*.

Difficulties with which other European traders were confronted in the fifties.

Litigation took place with regard to a lime quarry called Choon Chara, which was situated on the boundaries of Sylhet and the Khasi Hills and was claimed by the authorities of both districts as lying within their jurisdiction. Mr. Harry Inglis asserted a title to the quarry

* *Vide* Report on the Khasi and Jaintia Hills by A. J. Moffatt Mills, 1853.

which he professed to have derived from one Sona Khasi, while two other gentlemen, Messrs Duncan and Gibson, laid claim to the land on the ground that they had leased it from the ex-Raja of Jaintia and another person. In the course of this dispute various charges and counter-charges of assault were made, and the young Lieutenant, who was discharging the functions of a magistrate in the Cherra court, undoubtedly acted in a very singular and arbitrary manner. Sona Khasi complained that Messrs. Duncan and Gibson had cut down bamboos standing on his land. Choon Chara had at that time been found by the Collector of Sylhet to lie outside the Khasi Hills, and the dispute was evidently of a civil and not of a criminal nature. In spite of this, the magistrate at Cherra, without issuing a summons, issued a warrant for the arrest of a Mr. Cattell, who was supposed to be connected with the business, and sent a strong party of police to seize his person. A magistrate was then sent from Sylhet to enquire into the question of the disputed boundary, but it is said that Mr. Inglis' men assaulted Mr. Cattell, even in the presence of the magistrate, and upset his boat. The Commissioner of Dacca ultimately decided that Choon Chara was situated in the Khasi Hills, whereupon proceedings were revived against Mr. Inglis' European rivals in the lime trade. They fled the district, but their servants were punished with exemplary severity, and the magis trate even proceeded to attach large quantities of coal belonging to the Company on whose behalf they had been acting

Mr. Mills, an Officiating Judge of the High Court of Calcutta, who had been deputed to visit and report upon the district, recorded the following observations on these cases :

Mr. Mill's account of these transactions.

"Mr. Inglis has the absolute control of the trade in the Cherra and Jaintia Hills, and through his connection with Colonel Lister,* his long residence at Cherra, and the extent of his dealings, has acquired unbounded influence in the country, and I am constrained to add that the Cherra courts have lost the entire confidence of the people. The state of feeling amongst the natives is such that no one would dare to bring an action or give evidence against Mr. Inglis. Every person I have conversed with spoke in this strain, and the proceedings of the court certainly strengthen the impression."

These are the restrained and temperate comments of a Judicial Officer of high standing, but the condition of affairs is described in a much more graphic and sensational manner by a Mr. Sweetland, a gentleman, who seems in some way to have been connected with the business, and who addressed Mr. Mills in a lengthy communication from Calcutta. He describes how Mr. Cattell's house was surrounded by a party of armed police from Cherra, and how he fled by night to avoid being carried to Cherrapunji. "It is a fact," he goes on to say, "that Messrs. Gibson and Cattell were obliged to fly to avoid getting into the hands of the Cherra authorities. Mr. Duncan fled before. I know beyond dispute that they were ruined; they state they fled for their lives; Mr. Jones is said to have done the same and to have died afterwards of a broken heart." 'Fled for their

* Colonel Lister was Political Agent in the Khasi Hills and father-in-law of Mr. Inglis.

lives' is a strong expression to employ, but Messrs. Gibson and Cattell did not hesitate to declare that they were unable to contemplate even a temporary sojourn in the Cherra jail with equanimity. Four days, they said, would have been enough, in that time they would have been no more. The jail officials were all creatures of the man with whom they had been contending, and from the unscrupulous way in which they had been treated, they augered the worst. The picture as drawn by Mr. Sweetland is doubtless overcoloured, but it seems clear enough that in the early fifties Europeans were not wanted in the Khasi Hills, and that the local magnate had effective means for making his displeasure felt.

Rise in price of limestone.

In 1858, Mr. Allen, a Commissioner of Revenue, complained of the excessive price of limestone due to the practical monopoly enjoyed by Mr. Inglis. The total output of stone was placed at 17 lakhs of maunds, 15 of which were quarried by Messrs. Inglis, and the remaining two by a Mr. Sarkies and a Mrs. Stark. Limestone was selling at Chhatak for Rs. 180 the thousand maunds, a price which was said to be 50 per cent in advance of that ruling a few years before. Mr. Allen was much impressed by the inconveniences resulting from the high price of lime, and made certain suggestions for the abolition of the monopoly.* Nothing, however, seems to have been done, and in 1877 the Chief Commissioner

* Report on the Administration of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills by Mr. W. J. Allen, 1858, page 47.

addressed the Government of India upon the subject. The quarry leases had been put up to open auction, but Inglis and Company had bought them in, in many cases at fancy prices, and only worked a few of them. The price of limestone at Chhatak had risen to Rs. 385 per thousand maunds, an enormous advance on the price of twenty years before, though the cost of laying it there was said to be not more than Rs. 90 per thousand maunds.

Attempts to break the monopoly.

Government accordingly decided to reserve one quarry for departmental operations, from which the wants of Government in Bengal as well as in Assam could be supplied. Three years' leases of the remaining quarries were to be put up to auction, subject to the proviso that not more than three quarries could be held in the same interest and that quarries which were not worked could be resumed.* The experiment did not, however, prove a success and the new restrictions did not have the effect of putting an end to the monopoly, as Messrs. Inglis and Company arranged to purchase the whole of the output of the lessees. In January 1879, eighteen quarries were put up to auction. Only five of these were actually sold, for a total annual rent of Rs. 23,410 as compared with the Rs. 40,975 which they had fetched under the old *régime*. The remaining thirteen, which had formerly fetched a revenue of Rs. 26,538, were again put up to auction in the following October, but only attracted bids with an aggregate total of Rs. 529. In March 1880, they were again put up, when eight were

* File No. 46 J of 1878.

sold for Rs. 630. The auction system was so little satisfactory, that the experiment was tried of calling for tenders for the quarries. This proved a complete failure, and the leases were again put up to auction, but only a few were sold and the prices obtained were very low.* Unsatisfactory though this fall of price was, alike to Government and the seims concerned, it was no matter of surprise. In order to maintain their monopoly Messrs. Inglis had purchased quarries, which, on account of their inaccessibility or the scarcity of labour it would hardly have paid to work. In several cases they had paid exorbitant prices for the leases, as their value had been forced up by persons who bid them up, in the hope that they might be bought off. On the abolition of the monopoly these leases became unsaleable and there was a serious fall in the revenue derived by Government from lime.

The permit system.

A system was then introduced under which the quarries were thrown open to the general public, and royalty levied at the rate of Rs. 20 per 1,000 maunds of stone exported. In Khasi territory half of the royalty realized was credited to the seim. Coincident with the throwing open of the lime quarries there was a rise in the price of lime, and capital and labour were alike attracted to the industry. The natural results soon followed. The supply exceeded the demand, and the trade began to languish. Government accordingly decided to regulate the supply, and in 1889 most of the

* Letter No. 729, dated 19th May 1882, from the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner to the Secretary to the Government of India in the Revenue Department.

smaller lime quarries were closed. The Langrin and Nongstoin quarries were still held on rent by Mr. Inglis, and the Sohbar, Barpunji (Nongjiri), and Shella quarries were worked under the permit system. The western portion of Sohbar was leased to a Khasi named U. Don. Roy, and the eastern portion to Messrs. Inglis and Company. In 1894, Barpunji was leased for twenty years to Babu Jiban Roy for Rs. 3,000 per annum, and no royalty is levied at the present day on the stone extracted from that quarry. In 1899, a monopoly of the Uthma quarry, subject to the payment of the usual rates of royalty, was given to a European gentleman, in the hope that he would invest capital in the industry, but he did not renew the lease, which was for a period of one year only. The revenue derived from lime during the ten years ending with 1901-02 averaged Rs. 15,700 annually which was about one thousand rupees less than the average for the preceding decade. The total output in 1904 was about 123,000 tons of limestone.

Site of quarries and cost of production.

The lime quarries are situated all along the southern face of the hills from the Lubha river on the east to the Maheshkhali river on the west. The actual quarrying of the stone is a comparatively simple matter, the difficulty lies in its extraction. The rock is generally trollied down to the banks of the nearest river and conveyed in small flat bottomed canoes over the rapids to Chhatak. The cost of boating is at all times very heavy, and quarries which are situated too far from a navigable stream, or which are cut off by too violent

rapids from the placid waters of the rivers of Sylhet cannot be worked at a profit. The removal of the limestone can, moreover, only take place during the rains, as in the cold weather there is not sufficient water in the rivers.

The following figures give a fair idea of the cost of extracting one thousand maunds of limestone in 1904. Quarrying Rs. 30, dynamite Rs. 2, trollying Rs. 10, boating from Therria Ghat to Chhatak Rs. 50, royalty Rs. 20. Total cost of 1,000 maunds of limestone at Chhatak Rs. 112; price obtained Rs. 120 to Rs. 130. The quarry men are generally Khasis, three of whom can extract 2,000 maunds a month, so that they earn about Rs. 20 per mensem each. Burning costs from Rs. 120 to Rs. 150 per thousand maunds, and lime sells at Chhatak for from Rs. 290 to Rs. 400 per thousand maunds. Freight to Calcutta is from Rs. 200 to Rs. 230 per thousand maunds.

System of manufacture.

The lime is burnt all along the banks of the Surma river from Chhatak downwards. The kilns are semi-globular in shape, and generally hold from 500 to 700 maunds of stone. Reeds from the marshes in the neighbourhood are used as fuel, and the stone is burnt for about four days and nights. There is a considerable waste of heat, as the European system, under which the burnt lime is withdrawn from the bottom of the kiln and fresh stone fed in at the top, is not in vogue. Kilns of this nature would, however, necessitate the use of coal as fuel, and coal would at present cost more than the reed jungle.

The following is a list of the lime quarries situated in the district. In the case of the quarries owned by seims or sardars half of the royalty realized is credited to Government. **List of quarries.**

Name of quarry.	Name of proprietor.	Name of quarry.	Name of proprietor.
Apnachara ...	Sardars of Maolong.	Nokriachara ...	Seim of Malaisohmat.
Barpunji* ...	Government.	Nongstoin ...	Seim of Nongstoin.
Bhowalchara ...	Seim of Bhowal.	Nongtalang ...	Government.
Borsyrmai ...	Sardar of Dwara Nongtyrmen.	Pathariachara Phrang Karuh.	Seim of Bhowal.
Byrang ...	Government.	Ramsemdem Rajki ...	Seim of Maharam.
Chunchara ...	Ditto.	Rowai ...	Government.
Dholaichara ...	Seim of Bhowal.	Rupnath ...	Ditto.
Ishamati ...	Sardars of Maolong.	Shella‡ ...	Ditto.
Ka Long long ...	Sardar of Maodon.	Silaichara ...	Sardar of Dwara Nongtyrmen.
Lamapushi ...	Government.	Sinjura (in Dwara).	Ditto.
Langrin† ...	Seim of Langrin.	Sinjura (in Malaisohmat).	Seim of Malaisohmat.
Lithangchara ...	Government.	Sohbar § ...	Sardars of Sohbar.
Manaichara ...	Seims of Maharam and Maolong.	Tangla ...	Seim of Maharam.
Maolong Mustoh‡ ...	Sardars of Maolong.	Umjindem ...	Sardar of Maodon.
Mohishkhola ...	Seim of Nongstoin.	Uthmachara ...	Government.
Mokertila ...	Seim of Khyrim.		
Myrlipunji ...	Government.		

* Held on 20 years' lease which expires on November 30th, 1914, by estate of late Babu Jiban Roy, at a fixed rent of Rs. 3,000 per annum.

† Held on lease which expires on April 30th, 1907, by Babu Brajendra Kisore Ray, zamindar of Gauripur, Mymensingh, at fixed rent of Rs. 3,000 per annum.

‡ Worked on permit system.

§ The Komrah and Panitolah quarries in this group are worked on the permit system.

Dr. Oldham points out that much of the limestone would produce most durable, and occasionally very handsomely veined, marble, which would be well suited for chimney pieces and other domestic purposes. **Marble.**

Petroleum has been found in the valley of the Khasimara river, on the southern border of the district a little **Petroleum.**

to the west of Shella. A prospecting license, conveying rights over one square mile of land, was issued to a Syndicate represented by Mr. G. L. Garth in 1902.

Coal. Coal is found both in the cretaceous and nummulitic formations. The largest deposits of nummulitic coal are found at Cherrapunji, Laitryngew, Maolong, Mustoh, Maosanram, Maodon, Thanjinath, Lakadong, and Narpo. Cretaceous coal is found at Maobehlarkhar (near Maoflang), Borsora (near Laur), Wapung, Leukensuiet, and in the Langrin field on the Jadukata river.

The Cherrapunji field. The Cherrapunji coal fields have been twice described, by Dr. Oldham in Vol. I, part 2 of the Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, p. 185, and by Mr. LaTouche, Vol. XXII, part 3 of the Records of the Geological Survey of India, p. 167. The following account of this field is condensed from these authorities. The coal occurs near the top of an isolated ridge between Cherrapunji and Maomluh. It was first worked in 1840 by Captain Lister, the Political Agent in the hills, who sent down about 8,500 tons to Calcutta. In 1844, Government transferred its right in the mines to Mr. Engledue, the Agent for the Peninsular and Oriental Company, but in the following year this gentleman made over his lease to Messrs. Gisborne and Company of Calcutta, who worked this mine for about two years. In 1851, they transferred their rights to Mr. Moran, but, as none of the lessees had worked the mines since 1846, they were resumed in 1859 on the recommendation of Mr. W. J. Allen. Since that time operations have

only been carried on in a desultory manner by Khasi miners. The principal obstacle to the exploitation of the seam lies in the fact that it is situated at a height of 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, and that there is no easy means of transport to the plains. Such coal as is extracted is still carried down the hill by coolies, and it is obvious that till a cheaper and more effective means of transport has been provided, the mines cannot be worked on any considerable scale. Mr. LaTouche calculated that the field contains about 1,200,000 tons of workable coal, though this is only a rough estimate, and the actual quantity may be either rather more or rather less. At present the field is worked by the Khasis in a wasteful and unsatisfactory manner, and Mr. LaTouche recommended that a practical miner should be engaged for a short time to teach the hillmen how to work in a systematic way.* A portion of the field lies in the territory of the seim of Cherra, a portion in the British villages of

* The following suggestions for working were made by Mr. LaTouche :-

A good plan of working the coal would, in my opinion, be to drive parallel galleries along the seam from side to side of the hill at a short distance from each other, which would ensure good ventilation, and then work out the coal in squares between these galleries, propping the roof where necessary, and when all had been removed, allow the roof over that area to fall in. There would be no extra expense in making these galleries over the present method of working, as they would be driven horizontally through the coal itself, and there would be little or no waste rock to be got rid of. The maximum length in any case need not exceed 600 yards, but at first they need not be made so long as this, as portions of the hill may be selected where the distance from side to side is not nearly so great. It is very important, however, that such work should be carried on under the supervision of a practical miner; otherwise great waste of coal is sure to occur, since, if the roof were allowed to fall in over any area before all the coal had been worked out, it would be most difficult and dangerous to reopen that part of the mine to get at the remainder. The system would be somewhat similar to that known as "Long wall" mining in England, but as the conditions under which the coal is found are very different from those of any coalfield in England, it would be necessary to find a man of education and intelligence sufficient to appreciate these changed conditions.

Maosmai and Maomluh. The subjects of the seim have hitherto been allowed to work the coal lying in his territory without restraint, an arrangement which is fatal to the proper exploitation of the measures. The British portion of the coalfield, in which no such right exists, has been properly surveyed and demarcated. The coal was analysed by Mr. Prinsep and gave the following results. Volatile matter, 37·1 per cent; carbon, 62 per cent; ash, 0·9 per cent. It is an excellent steam coal, and yields good gas and coke.

The Laitryngew field. The Laitryngew, Maosanram, and Maobehlarkhar fields are described in the Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. XXIII, part 3, page 120. The first named field is situated near Serrarim, and is estimated by Mr. LaTouche to contain about 1,000,000 tons of marketable coal, though it is of inferior quality to the coal at Cherrapunji. The Maosanram field is about 14 miles south-east from Maoflang, on the road to Shella. It was estimated in 1890 to contain about 63,000 tons of coal. A small quantity of coal has been extracted to supply the wants of the lime burners in the vicinity. The Maobehlarkhar field is situated about five miles from Maoflang, near the eastern edge of the Bogapani gorge. The field is estimated to contain about 52,000 tons of excellent coal, and is the source from which Shillong obtains its fuel. The price at Shillong, only 19 miles from the pits' mouth, is very high (12 annas a maund or 27 shillings a ton), but the coal has to be carried across the deep ravine of the Bogapani before it can be put in carts. The Langrin coalfield is situated in the south-west corner of the district

west of the Ka Blei or Jadukata river. It is described by Mr. LaTouche in Volume XVII, part 3, of the Records of the Geological Survey of India, page 143. The seam extends over an area of some 30 square miles, and, lying as it does at the foot of the hills, is fairly accessible, but it is only about three feet thick. The coal, like that in the Maobehlarkhar field, is of cretaceous origin. The Maolong coalfield was taken on lease in 1901 by a Limited Company. It is estimated to contain about 15 million tons * of good workable coal, which, like the coal at Cherrapunji is of nummulitic origin.

The Lakadon field.

The Lakadong field is situated a little to the north-east of Jaintiapur. It was described by Dr. Oldham in the paper which has been already quoted, by Mr. C. H. Ringwood, Assistant Engineer, whose report was printed in the Assam Gazette of January 29th, 1876, and by Mr. LaTouche in November 1889.† Most of the coal is situated on the two plateaus of Umlotodo and Umat. Mr. LaTouche estimated that there were about 850,000 tons in the former field, and about 310,000 tons in the latter. Mr. LaTouche was, however, very doubtful as to the thickness of the Umlotodo seam, and recommended that before any capital was sunk in machinery or in improving the means of communication with the plains, its thickness should be tested by a series of small pits or borings. The Umat coal lies near to the surface and could be very easily removed. The best method, according to Mr. LaTouche, would be to sink

* This is not an official estimate.

† Assam Secretariat File No. 48 R of 1889.

shallow pits at short distances from each other, and, on reaching the coal, drive headings from one to the other along the seam. The coal included in the area between these headings might then be entirely worked out, and the roof allowed to fall in. Some propping of the roof would be required, but there is plenty of suitable timber in the neighbourhood. The field is situated at about 2,200 feet above the level of the sea, and a road would have to be made to the plains at Barghat seven miles away. From there the coal could be transported by water. There are several other fields in the vicinity, which were described by Mr. Ringwood, but in none of them are there any very considerable deposits.

Coal is also found at Jarain, a little to the south of Jowai, but communication with the plains is difficult. A seam has also been discovered near the Shillong-Gauhati Cart Road, about eight miles north of Shillong. The following is a list of the places in which coal has been discovered up to date :—

Amwi.	Laitryngew.	Maosanram.
Bairong.	Lakadong.	Manaichara.
Barapani.	Lakhat.	Mustoh.
Bhowal.	Langrin.	Narpuh.
Borsora.	Malai.	Sahtynga.
Cherrapunji.	Leukensuiet.	Shella.
Dwara Nongtyrmen.	Maobehlarkhar.	Shermang.
	Maodon.	Sinai Maohynnrut.
Jarain.	Maolong.	Thanjinath.

Iron. Iron is found in the form of a fine sand, consisting of minute crystals of titaniferous magnetic oxide,

which are irregularly distributed in the mass of the softer portions of the granite rocks and also occasionally in some of the gneissose beds. The upper portion of the granite is partially decomposed, and, when it is desired to extract the ore, the iron bearing strata are raked into a stream of water which is carried along the foot of the scarp on which operations have been undertaken. The ore is gradually washed out of the sand and other matter, and is smelted in a primitive furnace. It is either sold in balls, or is worked up into daos, hoes, and other agricultural implements. The process is described in a note recorded in 1885, which was published in a book called Notes on some industries of Assam, at the Shillong Secretariat Press in 1896. A good account of the iron industry will also be found in Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Volume I, part 2. The largest deposits of iron were found near Mylliem, Lait-lyngkot, Nongkrem, and the granite district of that neighbourhood, and more to the west, near Langkoi. The industry was at one time of considerable importance, and the remains of old workings are to be seen on every side in the localities referred to, but at the present day it is in a very languishing condition. The principal places at which iron ore is smelted at the present day are—Nongspung west of Shillong, Umphrup near Nongkrem, and Nartiang in the Jowai subdivision.

Gold. Traces of gold were found by Mr. Oldham in connection with the iron ore, but in such minute quantities that they would not admit of profitable extraction.*

* Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Volume I, Part 2, p. 207.

Climate and rainfall. Table I shows the average rainfall recorded at four places in the district. The Khasi and Jaintia Hills enjoy the distinction of containing one of the wettest places on the surface of the earth. The average annual rainfall at Cherrapunji, a village on the southern face of the hills, is no less than 458 inches. Enormous though this rainfall is, it is little more than half of the maximum on record. In 1861, 905 inches fell, 366 of which were assigned to July alone. The maximum for a single day was, however, recorded in 1876, when 41 inches of rain fell in 24 hours. The hills at this point rise straight from the plain, and the south-west monsoon, blowing across the flooded tracts of Eastern Bengal and Sylhet, is suddenly stopped by this barrier of cliffs. The air, which is saturated with moisture, rises, cools, and is precipitated in the form of rain. The village is situated on a plateau overlooking the plains, bounded on either side by gorges, and is thus completely surrounded with cooling vapour. Less than 5 inches of rain ordinarily fall in the four months, November to February, and nearly 300 in the three months June, July, and August. In spite of its enormous rainfall Cherrapunji is neither an unhealthy nor an unpleasant place of residence. The plateau is admirably drained, and the water is quickly carried off. Much of the rain falls at night, and the number of hours of sunshine is considerable. The Civil Surgeon stationed at Cherrapunji, in a report submitted to Mr. Moffatt Mills in 1853, stated that he had a high opinion of the climate of the Khasi Hills, and that an excellent site for a sanitarium could be selected either

at Cherrapunji itself, or at a place a little further to the north. He pointed out that the temperature varied little from the mean, the maximum in summer being 83°, the minimum, registered at sunrise in January, 43°. The rainfall certainly was heavy, but even of this the Civil Surgeon made light.

"During four months in the year a great quantity of rain falls at Cherra; on an average about five hundred inches in the twelve months. Nevertheless I do not consider that it rains here for a greater space of time, if so great, during the year, as it does at other hill stations. The two I allude to are Mussoorie and Darjeeling, with both of which I am well acquainted. When rain falls here it usually comes down in great quantities (as much as 24 inches sometimes fall in 24 hours); but in consequence of the hard and sloping nature of the surface, the station is perfectly dry an hour or two after the rain has ceased. Also the rain falls here principally in the night, as a proof of which I may mention that up to the present date (24th August) 348 inches have fallen this year; of this quantity 276 inches have fallen during the night between the hours of 6 P.M and 8 A.M. and the remainder, *viz.*, 72 inches and 85 cents only has fallen during the day between the hours of 8 A.M. and 6 P.M.

Also Cherra is very much more free from being constantly enveloped in clouds and mist than the hill stations above alluded to generally are during the rainy season. From this circumstance and from the good coal fires kept here, a well built house with a good thatch is much drier than houses in the plains of Bengal are during the rainy season, as a proof of which, paper which was placed on a room four years since now looks as good as new."

But, though the rainfall may not have a prejudicial effect upon the health of the inhabitants, its action on the physical features of the country is in proportion to its violence. This action has been admirably described **Effects of heavy rainfall.**

by Mr. Oldham, in the paper to which reference has been already made and from which the following extract is reproduced.*

"It will not be easy for those who have been accustomed to investigate countries where the average annual fall of rain amounts to thirty or forty inches, distributed with tolerable equality over the whole twelve months, to form a fair estimate of the immense forces brought into play in these hills, where the fall of rain in 24 hours is not unfrequently two feet six inches, or equal to the whole year's fall in most places in Europe, and where the annual fall, not distributed over the twelve months but concentrated into four or five, amounts to some fifty feet, or six hundred inches!

I took an opportunity of visiting one of the streams in these hills after a heavy and sudden fall of rain. The water had then risen only about thirteen feet above the level at which it stood a few days previously; the rush was tremendous—huge blocks of rock measuring some feet across, were rolled along with an awful crashing, almost as easily as pebbles in an ordinary stream. In one night a block of granite, which I calculated to weigh upwards of 350 tons, was moved for more than 100 yards; while the torrent was actually turbid with pebbles of some inches in size, suspended almost like mud in the rushing stream.

To the denuding force of these heavy and sudden falls of rain is also due the almost total absence of any soil in the flats of the hills near the southern escarpment. All has, in fact, been washed away, and a thin crop of coarse grass alone finds sustenance on the rocky surface. The marked absence of trees, the growth of which is cut off as with the axe along the edges of every flat, is largely due to the same causes but also largely to the blighting storms which sweep over these hills. On the sloping sides of the valleys trees grow abundantly, and at many places luxuriantly: there they are sheltered, and abundantly supplied with moisture.

But this water exerts its degrading forces not only on the surface of the flats, or where, in rushing over the precipitous scarps it excavates deep basins beneath, but it pours through the many fissures and clefts in the sandstone and limestone, and springs from the solid face of the rocks at different levels, tearing with it fragments of the hardest masses, and precipitating them into the gorges below.

* Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. I. Part 1, p. 174.

The rapid degradation which these hills must undergo is well shown by the vast amount of suspended matter, which is carried down by the streams issuing from them during the rains. I have more than once seen streams which in the drier weather, were beautifully pellucid, so turbid and charged with suspended matter, that a white card was invisible at the depth of one inch and a half! that is, through a stratum of water of that thickness. I have also measured the bulk of such sediment allowed to subside in a carefully divided tube, and found it more than once to amount to one-fifth of the total bulk, and in one case to very nearly one-third. In all cases this sediment was a fine clayey sand. Taking these facts in connection with the enormous fall of rain, it will be readily seen how rapid must be the degradation and denudation of these hills."

Rainfall in other part of district.

Jowai, which lies north-east of Cherrapunji, also suffers from an excess of moisture, and the average rainfall there is about 237 inches. But these enormous rainfalls are by no means common to the district as a whole. The clouds are soon drained of their moisture, and, though Shillong is only 22 miles as the crow flies from Cherrapunji, the average rainfall there is only 82 inches in the year, a figure which, for Assam, is comparatively low. April is a drier month than is usual in that Province, and more than five-eighths of the total rainfall is precipitated in the four months June to September. The climate of the higher hills is exceedingly salubrious. There are no records of temperature available, but on the hottest days in summer the thermometer in a bungalow in Shillong seldom rises above 80° Fahrenheit. On the high plateau which extends from Upper Shillong to Serrarim, the temperature is appreciably lower, and it is cold enough to make fires pleasant on a wet evening even in the height of summer. In the winter there are often frosts at night, but snow

seldom falls. The total rainfall for December and January is only three quarters of an inch, and the advent of the rain clouds is generally accompanied by a rise in temperature. There was, however, a fairly heavy snowfall on January 9th, 1899.

Storms. Destructive storms are practically unknown. Strong winds, however, blow from the west from the middle of February to the middle of April.

Earthquakes. The Khasi Hills like the rest of Assam is a seismic area, and slight earth tremors are so common as to excite little attention. Considerable damage was done to houses by a shock which occurred in September 1875, and widespread havoc was wrought by the great earthquake of June 12th, 1897. This earthquake was felt over an area of 1,750,000 square miles, from Rangoon on the south-east to Kangra on the north-west, and serious damage was done to masonry buildings over an area of 145,000 square miles.* The area of maximum disturbance was a tract of country of the shape of a cocked hat, whose base line ran from Rangpur to Jaintiapur, while the top of the crown was near Barpeta. The first shock was felt at Shillong about 5-12 P.M. Its advent is thus described by the Deputy Commissioner. "The first shock, which was comparatively slight, was preceded by that rumbling underground noise since so familiar, but was accentuated within a few seconds with such severity that every masonry

*Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. XXIX, page 52.

building in Shillong was levelled with the ground. The direction was roughly from south-west to north-east. The Secretary's residence on the hill above the Ward lakes, in which my wife and I were living, collapsed at once, as we stepped out upon the lawn, and the magnitude of the disaster was revealed immediately by the roar of the water escaping from the Ward lakes, which rushed down a ravine, and damming up the stream Umkra, destroyed the iron bridge leading to the polo ground, driving the heavy iron girders a considerable distance up stream." Government House was converted in a few seconds into a heap of stones, and the Chief Commissioner and his wife, who were seated in their dog cart under the porch, but narrowly escaped from death.

It was most fortunate that the earthquake occurred as it did, in the afternoon, when, after a wet day, nearly every one was out of doors. In spite of the collapse of every masonry building, there were only 29 deaths in Shillong, 10 of which occurred in the Secretariat Press. The only Europeans killed were Mr. McCabe, C.S., the Inspector-General of Police, and Mr. Rossenrode, a pensioner of the Survey Department. The sufferings of the people, who had suddenly been rendered homeless, were increased by the inclemency of the weather. Rain fell continuously for twenty-four hours, and people were compelled to seek shelter in huts, out-houses, and stables. Food, clothing, bedding, and all that goes to make life comfortable were buried under heaps of stones. There was a complete, though temporary, dislocation of the water supply, and this, coupled with the exposure and hardships

to which all were subjected, was the cause of much sickness. The telegraph line was broken, many of the bridges on the Gauhati road were wrecked, and for a short time Shillong was completely cut off from communication with the outer world. Telegraphic communication with Gauhati was, however, resumed on June 16th, and on the 8th of July the road was once more open to cart traffic. Outside Shillong there were 887 deaths most of which occurred in the villages which are situated in the deep valleys amongst the southern hills. These casualties were principally due to the falling of the hill sides, which carried the houses with them, or buried them in a shower of rocks and earth. The villages in which the mortality was highest were Shella (117), Laitiam (86), Nongwar (59), Cherrapunji (31), Maosmai (27), Sohbar (24), and Laitkynsew (19). Shella is situated on a steep slope overhanging the Bogapani, and the northern end of the village subsided in a landslip. Most of the other casualties were due to avalanches of rocks and earth, which buried the houses in the villages and the people working in the fields. Public health was bad for a year or two after the earthquake, but, except in the southern hills, the natives of the district lost but little. To people living in the neighbourhood of Shillong it was a positive source of wealth as labour for some time commanded fancy prices. The station was soon rebuilt and in a very short space of time there was nothing to suggest that such a thing as an earthquake had ever taken place. A full account of this terrible catastrophe will be found in Vol. XXIX of the Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India.

The fauna of the district include elephants, mithan (*bos gaurus*) buffaloes, tigers, leopards, bears, probably *ursus torquatus* and *ursus malayanus*, wild pig, wild dogs, of which there are two varieties, the smaller and the larger, presumably *cyon dukhunensis* and *cyon rutilans*, the serow, which is, however very rare, and four kinds of deer called by the Khasis *ka sir*, *ka bthong*, *ka bthel*, and *ka skei*. Sir William Hunter states that wolves are found,* but it is probable that these so called wolves are only the larger variety of wild dog. Foxes, too, are occasionally seen in the hills. Small game include duck and teal in the lower valleys, black and marsh partridge, jungle fowl, dorick, woodcock, and snipe. In 1903 one person was killed by an elephant and 8 by tigers, and rewards were paid for the destruction of 1 elephant, 7 tigers, 30 leopards, and 40 bears. Elephants are captured either in kheddahs, or by what is known as *mela shikar*. In the latter case staunch trained elephants pursue the herd. The younger animals after a time begin to lag behind, when two of the pursuers come up on either side, and the mahouts pass a noose of strong rope round the animal's neck. For the purpose of elephant hunting the district is divided into ten *mahals*, which are put up at intervals to auction. In addition to the purchase price of the *mahal* the lessee has to pay a royalty of Rs. 100 on every animal captured. In independant territory the proceeds are divided between Government and the seims. **Fauna.**

* A Statistical Account of Assam, Vol. II, p. 214.

Flora. The following paragraphs on the flora of the district are based on notes received from the Director of the Botanical Survey of India.

The great undulating plateau, which constitutes the southern half of the Khasia and Jaintia range, is generally bare of trees, and the slopes of the hills are covered with grass. Here and there, however, occur open forests of the Khasia pine, often mixed with oaks especially *quercus fenestrata* and *quercus griffithii* in the western half and *quercus serrata* in the eastern. The flanks of the deep valleys and ravines intersecting the plateau are generally covered with the trees already mentioned and with other varieties such as *schima wallichii*, *castanopsis hystrix*, *evodia fraxinifolia*, as well as species of *ilex ligustrum*, and *cinnamomum*.

The broken hilly ground which forms the northern half of the district contains large stretches of dense evergreen forests in the valleys, in which nahor (*mesua ferrea*), dingngan (*schima wallichii*) *vatica lanceæfolia*, *castanopsis hystrix* and *castanopsis tribuloides* predominate, while other common trees are *engelhardtia spicata*, *stereospermum chelonoides*, *bombax malabaricum*, *lagerstræmia parviflora*, *semecarpus anarcardium*, *careya arborea*, and *gmelina arborea*. Sal (*shorea robusta*) is found as far east as the Shillong Gauhati road. The broad ridges and spurs between the valleys are covered with high grass with clumps of forest here and there. The outer ranges of hills on the north are covered with bamboo and deciduous trees such as *dillenia pentagyna* and

gmelina arborea. Palms are abundant, belonging chiefly to the genera *phœnix, licuala, areca, arenga, calamus, caryota, chamærops, wallichia.* At higher elevation rhododendrons occur. Orchids epiphytic and terrestrial abound at all elevations and *sitamineæ* are very numerous. Above 5,000 feet are found species of such herbaceous genera as *raminculus, anemone, thalictrum, delphinium geranium, potentilla, sanguisorba, astragalus, saxifraga valeriana, senecio, pedicularis, primula, tofieldia iris,* and many ferns.

Dr. Hooker's account.

Dr. Hooker gives the following account of the vegetation on the southern slopes of the hills.*

"Palms are more numerous here, upwards of twenty kinds being indigenous; the cultivated betelnut especially, raises its graceful stem and feathery crown, 'like an arrow shot down from heaven,' in luxuriance and beauty above the verdant slopes. This difference is at once expressed to the Indian botanist by defining the Khasia flora as of Malayan character; by which is meant the prevalence of brilliant glossy-leaved evergreen tribes of trees. Figs abound in the hot gulleys, where the property of their roots, which inosculate and form natural grafts, is taken advantage of in bridging streams, and in constructing what are called living bridges, of the most picturesque forms. Oaks, oranges, gamboge, diospyros, figs, jacks, plantains, and screw-pines are more frequent here, together with vines and peppers, and above all palms, both climbing ones with pinnated shining leaves and erect ones with similar foliage (as cultivated cocoa-nut, and Areca), the broader-leaved wild betelnut, and beautiful *Caryota* or wine-palm, whose immense leaves are twelve feet long. Laurels and wild nutmegs are frequent in the forest, with the usual prevalence of parasites, mistletoe, epiphytical orchids, ferns, mosses, and Lycopodiums; and on the ground grow ferns, beautiful balsams, and herbaceous and shrubby nettles. Bamboos of many kinds are very abundant, and these hills further differ remarkably from those of Sikkim in the great number of species of grasses."

* Himalayan Journals, Vol. II, p. 271.

According to Dr. Hooker the Khasi flora is, in extent and number of fine plants, the richest in India, and probably in all Asia. He and his companion collected upwards of 2,000 flowering plants within ten miles of Cherrapunji, in addition to 150 ferns, and a profusion of mosses, lichens, and fungi. There were 250 kinds of orchids, 25 of balsams, 20 of palms, and 150 of grasses. Wild apples, birches, and scarlet and white rhododendrons are found in the higher plateau, and in the tropical forest on the north there are figs, birches, horse chestnuts, oaks and nutmegs.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Khasi raids on Sylhet—Mr. Scott's march across the Jaintia Hills—Construction of road through Khasi Hills and massacre of Nongkhlao—Punitive measures—Submission of all the chiefs by 1833—The Khasi Seimships—System of inheritance—The Jaintia Hills—Risings in 1860 and 1862—Subsequent history—Archæology.

Khasi raids on Sylhet.

The history of our dealings with the Khasis and Syntengs will be found detailed in the North-East Frontier of Bengal by Mr. (afterwards Sir Alexander) Mackenzie, (pages 217-244), and need therefore only be summarised very briefly here.

We were first brought into relations with the Khasis by our occupation of Sylhet. The hillmen seem to have lived in a state of intermittent warfare with the Muhammadan fauzdar of Sylhet, and they did not abandon this objectionable practice, when that district passed into the possession of the British. The magnificent lime quarries in the hills near Cherrapunji attracted European traders to Pandua, which is near the modern mart at Bholaganj. Taken as a body these men were hardly calculated to raise the prestige of Englishmen in the eyes of the savage mountaineers, and some of the disturbances which occurred are ascribed by the Collector to their injudicious conduct. Raids and murders were by no means uncommon, and the Khasi

problem was one of the most troublesome questions which confronted the Collector of Sylhet at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The subject is discussed at greater length in the Gazetteer of that district, to which it more properly belongs.

Mr. Soot's march across the Jaintia Hills.

It was, however, the Syntengs, as the inhabitants of the Jaintia Hills are called, whose country was first traversed by an official of the Company. When war was imminent between the British and the Burmese, Mr. David Scott, the Agent to the Governor-General on the north-east frontier, entered into an agreement with the Jaintia Raja. In 1824, Mr. Scott marched from Sylhet into the Brahmaputra Valley across the Jaintia Hills, and, after the cession of Assam to the British by the treaty of Yandaboo, the linking up of the Brahmaputra and Surma Valleys by a road across the hills became a question of considerable importance.

Construction of road through Khasi Hills & massacre of Nong-khlao.

In 1826, Mr. Scott won over Teerut Singh, the seim of Nongkhlao, to his side, by promising to allow him to rent some land in the Brahmaputra Valley. This chief induced the inhabitants of the States concerned to authorise the construction of a road across the hills. Bungalows were erected at Nongkhlao, the work was pushed on under the supervision of Lieutenants Bedingfield and Burlton, and for a time nothing could exceed the harmony of the relations between the Khasis and their visitors. The savage is, however, alike treacherous and suspicious, and a chance remark let fall by a chaprasi, threatening the hillmen with taxation, is said to have been the spark that fired the mine. The Khasis invited

the British officers to a conference. Burlton, suspecting treachery, declined to go, but his comrade entered the assembly unarmed, and was forthwith put to death. Burlton defended himself in his bungalow with his small guard and when night came endeavoured to draw off his party to Assam. He was, however, followed, and after a prolonged resistance overpowered and his followers to the number of about 60 killed.

Punitive measures.

This wanton outrage called for speedy retribution. Troops were quickly hurried up from Sylhet and Assam, and the Khasis were defeated and dispersed. The course of these operations are thus summarised by Captain Pemberton: "Captain Lister, commanding the Sylhet Light Infantry, with a mere handful of men, drove the Khasis from post to post, stormed their entrenchments, penetrated into their caves and fastnesses, and by the rapidity of his movements, and the boldness of his assaults, so completely destroyed the confidence in their own prowess with which they had commenced the contest, that they latterly confined themselves to attacks upon small parties of five or six individuals for whom they lay in ambush, and rarely ventured to contend openly with any detachment, however inferior to them in numbers."*

Submission of all the Chiefs by 1833.

In 1831, raids were made upon the plains of Kamrup and of Sylhet, but they were promptly punished, and this was the last time the Khasis dared to descend upon our territory. It was impossible for a people, divided as they were, to offer any serious opposition to

*Pemberton's North-East Frontier, p. 225.

our troops, and in January 1833 the last of the important seims, Teerut Singh, tendered his submission. Teerut Singh was confined in the Dacca jail for the remainder of his life, but his state was handed over to his nephew and heir, and engagements were entered into with the other Khasi chiefs.

These engagements will be found in the first volume of a Collection of Treatises, Engagements, and Sanads relating to India and neighbouring countries compiled by Mr. C. U. Aitchison C.S. The general clauses, which are common to most of these agreements, acknowledge the authority of the Deputy Commissioner as the local representative of Government. The right to all minerals is surrendered, on condition that Government makes over to the seim half of the royalties received, and the seim undertakes to provide Government rent free, with all land required for cantonments, and sanitoria, and to give every assistance which may be required in opening roads.

The Khasi Seimships.

There are altogether twenty-five of these little states in the Khasi Hills, and they are probably some of the smallest and most insignificant communities which have ever been dignified by such a title. Not a single state amongst the twenty-five has a gross revenue of Rs. 1,000 per mensem, and in no less than twelve the gross revenue is less than Rs. 1,000 per annum. The largest states are those of Khyrim, Mylliem, and Nongkhlao. The smallest is Nonglewai, which in 1901 had a population of 169 persons, who yielded to the

seim a gross revenue of Rs. 40 per annum. The following list shows the population, revenue, and principal products of these little states.

Bhowal.—The population in 1901 was 865, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 900. The principal products are rice, millet, bay leaves and black pepper, the most important mineral deposit lime. The title of the native chief is seim.

Cherra.—The population in 1901 was 8,155 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs 7,900. Coal and iron are found, but are not largely worked. Other products include potatoes and oranges, in which there is a considerable trade, cotton, millet, betelnut, pan, chillies, ginger, and honey. The title to the seimship of the state is disputed, and on the occasion of the appointment of a new seim in 1901 there were serious riots involving loss of life.

Dwara Nongtyrmen.—The population in 1901 was 362 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 100. The principal products are rice, millet, and oranges. The most valuable mineral deposit is lime. The title of the native chief is sardar.

Jirang.—The population in 1901 was 723 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 2,045. The principal products are rice, millet, ginger, caoutchouc, and cotton. The native chief is known by the title of sardar.

Khyrim.—The population in 1901 was 31,327 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 10,161. The principal products are potatoes, rice, millet, Indian corn, lac,

oranges, cotton and silk cloths, and iron hoes and bill-hooks. There are deposits of lime, coal and iron in the state, but they are not worked. The title of the native chief is seim.

Langiong.—The population in 1901 was 596 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 120. The principal products are potatoes and millet. The native chief is known as lyngdoh.

Langrin.—The population in 1901 was 1,138, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 2,050. The principal products are rice and millet. There are deposits of coal and lime in the state but only the latter is worked. The chief is known by the title of seim.

Maharam.—The population in 1901 was 8,464 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 1,570. The principal products are pepper, bay leaves, honey, rice, potatoes, millet, and maize. Lime and iron are found in the state, but are not worked, but imported iron is manufactured into hoes and bill-hooks. The title of the chief is seim.

Malaisohmat.—The population in 1901 was 491, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 200. The principal products are rice, millet, bay leaves, betelnuts, and oranges. There are deposits of lime in the state, but they are not worked. The title of the chief is seim.

Maodon.—The population in 1901 was 296, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 1,490. The principal products are millet, oranges, betelnuts, pine-apples, and bay leaves. There are deposits of lime and coal in the

state, but they are not worked. The native chief is known by the title of sardar.

Maoflang.—The population in 1901 was 947, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 145. The principal products are millet, rice, and potatoes. The title of the native chief is lyngdoh.

Maoiang.—The population in 1901 was 1,856, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 300. The principal products are potatoes, millet, and honey. Lime and iron are found in the state, but are not worked. The title of the chief is seim.

Maolong.—The population in 1901 was 1,472 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs 1,800. The principal products are oranges, millet, betelnuts, and pine-apples. There is a trade in lime and the coal mines of the state have been leased for 30 years. The state is administered by a committee of three sardars.

Maosanram.—The population in 1901 was 1,414 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 2,930. The principal products are potatoes, millet, and honey. Lime, coal, and iron are found in the state, but are not worked. The title of the chief is seim.

Marriw.—The population in 1901 was 2,289 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 380. The principal products are rice, millet and maize. Lime is found in the state, but is not worked. The chief is known by the title of seim.

Mylliem.—The population in 1901 was 17,863 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 7,930. The principal products are rice, potatoes, Indian corn, and millet.

The manufactures are iron hoes and baskets. There are deposits of iron in the state, but they are not worked. The station of Shillong is situated in this state and seim is the title of the native chief.

Nobosophoh.—The population in 1901 was 1,555 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 500. The principal products are rice, maize, and potatoes. Lime is found in the state, but is not worked. The title of the native chief is seim.

Nongkhlao.—The population in 1901 was 9,715 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 2,300. The principal products of the state are potatoes, rice, millet, and maize. The only manufactures are iron axes and hoes. The native chief is called seim.

Nonglewai.—The population in 1901 was 169 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 40. The principal products are millet, rice, and potatoes. The native chief is called sardar.

Nonspung.—The population in 1901 was 1,859 and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 880. The principal products are rice, potatoes, and honey. Iron is found in the state but is not worked. The title of the native chief is seim.

Nongstoin.—The population in 1901 was 9,606, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 7,560. The principal products are lac, honey, cotton, bay leaves, rice, and millet. The manufactures include rough pottery, cotton cloth, bill-hooks, and hoes. Lime and coal are found in the state, but only the former is worked. The native chief is known as seim.

Pamsanngut.—The population in 1901 was 288, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 50. The principal products are potatoes and millet. The title of the chief is sardar.

Rambrai.—The population in 1901 was 2,697, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 550. The principal products are rice, millet, cotton, and maize. The chief is called sardar.

Shella.—This state consists of a confederacy of villages ruled by four officers called wahadadars, who are elected by the people. Many lives were lost in the earthquake of 1897 and the population, which was 6,358 in 1891, had fallen to 4,358 in 1901. The principal products of the state are pine-apples, betelnuts, and oranges, which prior to the earthquake were a source of great wealth to the people. In 1897 much damage was done to the orange groves by deposits of sand. There is a trade in lime and the Mustoh coal fields are of some value. The gross revenue in 1903 was Rs. 4,172.

Sohiong.—The population in 1901 was 2,014, and the gross revenue in 1903, Rs. 600. The principal products are millet, rice, and potatoes. The title of the chief is lyngdoh.

System of inheritance.

The chiefs of these little states are generally taken from the same family, inheritance going through the female. A uterine brother usually has the first claim, and failing him a sister's son. The appointment is, however, subject to the approval of a small electoral

body, and the heir apparent is occasionally passed over, if for any reason, mental, physical, or moral, he is unfit for the position. The electors are generally the mantries or lyngdohs, the representatives of the clans which go to form the state. The seims derive the bulk of their revenue from tolls levied at markets, the rates varying from one pice to one anna per cooly load. Their functions are chiefly magisterial, and in the discharge of these duties they are assisted by their mantries. A detailed report on the right of succession in the different states was prepared by the Deputy Commissioner in 1903. In the winter of 1901-02, there was serious rioting at Cherra in connection with the disputes of two rival claimants to the seimship. The adherents of one of these men, Roba Singh, occupied the village of Cherrapunji, and the Deputy Commissioner had to proceed to the spot with a detachment of the 43rd (now 7th) Gurkha Rifles to restore order. On April 2nd and 3rd, 1902, the two factions again broke out, houses were burnt, and three men and one woman on the side of Chandra Singh, one of the claimants, were wounded, and one man was killed and two wounded on the side of Roba Singh. The ringleaders were, however, arrested without difficulty and Roba Singh was confirmed as seim of the state.

The Jaintia Hills.

The Jaintia parganas in the plains of Sylhet were annexed in 1835, as it was found impossible to obtain adequate satisfaction from the Raja for the murder of three British subjects. When deprived of his territories in the plains, that potentate resigned his possessions in

the high lands, and the Jaintia Hills were accordingly incorporated in the territories of the Company.

The rule of the Jaintia Raja over these Syntengs was of the lightest. The only taxes he received were a he-goat from each village, a little rice and wood, and the labour needed for the cultivation of the Raja's lands. The bulk of his revenue was, no doubt, obtained from dues levied on goods passing from the plains into the hills, and from the hills into the plains. For the first twenty years of our occupation, though occupation it can hardly perhaps be called, the system of administration was practically left unchanged. The hill-men continued to bring in their goats, and their various disputes were decided by the local headmen. About 1850, some slight attempt was made to administer the country by the establishment of a thana at Jowai, and in 1860 it was decided to impose a house tax.

Risings in 1860 and 1862.

This was an incident of British administration that had no attractions for the people, and they forthwith rose in rebellion. A large force of troops was, however, close at hand, and before the revolt could make any head it was stamped out. The house tax was, however, closely followed by the income tax, which was imposed in 1860-61. Only 310 persons in the Jaintia Hills were brought upon the assessment list, and the total demand was less than Rs. 1,300. The tax for the first year was paid without a protest, but on January 17th, 1862, the stockade at Jowai was suddenly surrounded by a large body of men, who threatened to attack the guard. They dispersed on a few shots being fired at them, but on the 23rd a

riotous mob once more assembled and burnt down the thana. Troops were then gradually brought into the hills. The rebels stockaded themselves in their villages, and these positions were then carried by the troops. There was little loss as a rule on either side, as, as soon as the sepoys had succeeded in forcing their way into the stockade, the Syntengs disappeared into the jungle. There was never any opportunity of striking a decisive blow, and it was not till November 1863 that the last of the insurgents had surrendered. An account of the proceedings will be found in the selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal, Vol. XXXIX, but the story of this indecisive guerilla warfare is of no particular interest at the present day.

Cause of rising.

The impatience of the hillmen of restraint seems to have been the main cause of the rising. The rule of their own Raja had been of the lightest. At the beginning of the eighteenth century the Jaintia Raja had owned himself the vassal of the Ahom king, but he had been unable to carry his own people with him. He submitted, but they rose as one man and massacred the Ahom garrisons that had been posted in the hills. After the Jaintia Raja had abandoned his possessions in the highlands, we left the people practically undisturbed for a quarter of a century. The only representative of the British Government was the thanadar, and all that Government did for the people was to tax them, though the imposts levied were certainly of the lightest. The Syntengs had never been conquered, and had no conception of the resources of the Indian

Empire. The Jaintia Hills had been British territory for a generation, but it had been British only in name. As long as the people were left entirely to their own devices, they had no excuse for giving any trouble, but they were prompt to resent anything so offensive as taxation. Since 1863, a European officer has been stationed in the Jaintia Hills, and the Syntengs have never on any occasion been the cause of any anxiety to the Administration.

Subsequent history. The subsequent history of the district has been uneventful, and the only incident of importance that has occurred is the great earthquake of 1897, which has already been described. After the suppression of the Khasi rising in 1833, Captain Lister was appointed to the political charge of the hills, and his headquarters were located at Cherrapunji. This place remained the headquarters of the district till 1864 when they were removed to the drier plateau of Yeodo at the foot of the Shillong range. In 1874, when Assam was formed into a separate Province under a Chief Commissioner, Shillong was selected as the headquarters for the new Administration.

Archæology. There are no remains of archæological interest in the hills, apart from the memorial stones of the Khasis, and the monuments erected in memory of a few Europeans. The Khasi monoliths are a prominent feature in the landscape in almost every portion of the district. They are generally arranged in rows, varying in number from three to nine. The centre stone is invariably the tallest

and is sometimes crowned with a piece of stone the size and shape of a plate. A flat table like stone, supported on small pillars about one foot high, is placed in front of each group of three monoliths, and for each extra pair of monoliths there is an additional flat stone.

Some of these monoliths are of enormous size. At Nartiang there is a stone which is 26 feet 6 inches high, 6 feet 9 inches wide, and 2 feet 3 inches thick. These memorial stones fall into two classes, those which are elected by the family or clan in memory of their ancestors, and those erected by children in honour of their parents. They are generally placed near paths where they will be continuously in the public eye, and are often far away from the place where the ashes of the person in whose honour they have been erected, are buried. At Cherrapunji there are several fine platforms built of solid masonry on which the seims of the Cherra State, or their near relations, have been burned. There is a large obelisk of solid masonry in Cherra station, erected to the memory of Mr. David Scott, the Agent to the Governor-General on the north-east frontier, and an almost equally imposing monument, a little to the north of the village, which commemorates an old Khasi woman who died in 1903. At Nongkhlao there is a monument to Lieutenants Bedingfield and Burlton, who were murdered by the Khasis in 1829, and at Shillong there is a monument erected in memory of the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quinton, and the other officers who were killed during the disturbances in Manipur in 1891.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION.

Area and density—Towns and villages—Growth of population—Migration—Sex—Marriage—Infirmities—Language—Caste and tribe—The Garos—The Khasis and Syntengs—The Lalungs—The Mikirs—Religion—Animism—Christianity—Other religions—Occupations.

Area and density. The area of the district is 6,027 square miles, the population in 1901 was 202,250, and the density is thus 34 to the square mile. The density in the two subdivisions of Shillong or the Khasi Hills, and Jowai or the Jaintia Hills is practically identical. Figures are not available for any minor unit, but the bulk of the population is probably living in the central and southern portions of the hills.

Towns and villages. The district contains one small town, Shillong, and 1,839 villages. These villages are quite unlike the fortified posts which are occupied by the Nagas on the east. Head hunting, with all its attendant horrors, was unknown even before our occupation of the country, and there was nothing to keep the population together. The result is that nearly all these villages are small hamlets with less than 500 inhabitants and in many of them there are not more than three or four houses.

Growth of population.

Mr. Mills, in 1853, reported that the population of the district was estimated to be 119,000 souls. The abstract in the margin shows the population recorded in 1872 and at the subsequent enumerations, and the percentage of increase in each decade.

	Population.	Percentage variation.
1872	... 140,356	
1881	... 167,804	+19·5
1891	... 197,904	+17·9
1901	... 202,250	+2·1

A synchronous census in these hills has up to the present day been found impossible, and a part of the large increase that occurred prior to 1891 was possibly due to the perfecting of the machinery of enumeration. The great earthquake of 1897 was chiefly responsible for the want of progress during the last decade of the century. Less than a thousand people were actually killed, but the earthquake was succeeded by a period of exceptional unhealthiness. It was followed by incessant rain, and owing to exposure, anxiety, want, and bad food, dysentery and fever were prevalent throughout the district. The water-supply seems to have been in some way affected, and bowel complaints were unusually common. The Reverend Dr. John Roberts, whose experience of the district extended over nearly thirty years, reported that he had never seen such a high mortality as occurred in 1898 and 1899. The earthquake was also followed by a marked decline in the birth rate, a fact which received ample confirmation from the census tables. In the Khasi Hills the increase was less than one per cent, but in the Jowai subdivision, where the effects of this great disturbance were not so severe, it was over five per cent.

There is very little movement into or out of the hills, and over 96 per cent of the persons censused there in 1901 had been born within the boundaries of the district. There were less than 4,000 immigrants from other districts of the Province. nearly 1,300 of whom came from Sylhet, while Kamrup and the Garo Hills accounted for about half of the remainder. More than three-fourths of the foreigners, or persons born outside the Province, were living in Shillong. Further details with regard to immigration will be found in Table III. **Migration.**

Women in the hills considerably exceed the men in numbers, and in 1901 there were 1,080 females to every 1,000 males. Were it not for the foreign population the proportion would have been much higher, as amongst the Khasi and Synteng tribe there are 1,143 women to every 1000 men. Amongst the Garos and Mikirs who were living in the district, the men slightly exceeded the women in numbers. Women amongst the Khasis enjoy a position of unusual dignity and importance. Inheritance is traced entirely through the female line, women and girls move about as freely and enjoy quite as full a life as men, and their numbers are not reduced, as in some other parts of India, either by premature parturition or neglect. **Sex.**

The following is a brief description of the marriage customs of the Khasis. For further details reference should be made to the monograph on the tribe. **Marriage.**

At a marriage the parties are pronounced man and wife in the presence of their friends, and a feast usually

follows. The essential part of the ceremony consists of the mixing of liquor from two different gourds, representing the two contracting parties, and the eating by the bride and groom out of the same plate. The bride at first remains in her mother's house, where she is visited by her husband, but when children are born, the parents, if they continue satisfied with one another, set up housekeeping together. This union between the sexes is, however, hardly worthy of the name of marriage as it can be terminated at will by the contracting parties, and, as the initial ceremony costs but little, a man is not deterred from changing his wife by the expense of obtaining a new partner. Divorce is very common, and is effected by a public declaration, coupled with the presentation by the man to the woman of five cowries or copper coins, which she returns to him with five similar coins of her own. He then throws them away, and the whole ceremony is complete. The public proclamation is occasionally dispensed with, and the marriage is dissolved by the simple tearing of a pan leaf. The temporary character of the Khasi marriages can be judged from the fact that one man, who did not look more than 35 or 40 years of age, admitted to a missionary that he had been married 37 times. In such cases the women remain in their own homes, and suffer no material inconvenience from the departure of their fickle husbands. The facility with which divorce can be obtained renders adultery or intercourse prior to marriage, uncommon. Marriage, in fact, is merely a union of the sexes, dissoluble at will, and the people have no

temptation to embark on secret intrigues. A woman who commits adultery is, moreover, regarded with extreme disfavour, and according to the Khasi code of morals, there is only one thing worse, and that is to marry in one's own clan. A widow is allowed to remarry, but not into the family of her late husband, a practice exactly the converse of that prevailing in the Garo Hills, to the west. Infant marriage is practically unknown, and in 1901 out of the 38,000 married women in the district only 516 were less than 15 years of age. The proportion of potential mothers, *i.e.*, married women between 15 and 40 is comparatively small. In 1901, they formed only 144 per mille of the total population, as compared with 157 per mille in the Province as a whole, and 169 per mille in the Central Provinces.

Infirmities.

The abstract in the margin shows out of 10,000 males the number in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, Assam, and the Indian Empire afflicted with the four special infirmities selected for record at the census. Blindness is the only infirmity which is at all common. The proportion of blind people has always been higher in the hills than in the valley, and it is probable that the confined and smoky atmosphere of the hillman's hut has an injurious effect upon the eyes. The district has always been unusually free from leprosy This is somewhat noteworthy as large quantities of dried but

Out of 10,000 males number afflicted with—

	Blindness.	Deaf-mutism.	Leprosy.	Insanity.
Khasi and Jaintia Hills	14	6	6	3
Assam ...	10	9	13	5
India ...	12	6	5	3

most malodorous fish are imported into it from Sylhet, and, according to Doctor Jonathan Hutchinson, it is to fish of this description that leprosy is largely due.

Language. The principal languages spoken in the hills are Khasi, which in 1901 was returned by 59 per cent of the population, Synteng, which is closely akin to it (27 per cent), and Mikir (6 per cent). Khasi and Synteng are said to belong to the Mon-Khmer family to which Mon-Palaung and Wa belong. At the present day these languages are spoken in Pegu, in the hilly country near the Mekhong, and in Cambodia. In Assam this special form of speech is only found in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, and nearly all the other aboriginal languages with which it is surrounded belong to the great Bodo family. The Mon-Khmer languages have something in common with the Munda family, and, though it would be too much to say that they have a common origin, they have a common substratum over which have settled layers of other speech. Garo is a member of the Bodo group and Mikir occupies an intermediate position between the Bodo and the Naga languages. For further details with regard to these various forms of speech reference should be made to the Linguistic Survey of India by Dr. Grierson.

Caste and Tribe. From the racial point of view the population of the district is extraordinarily homogeneous. Khasis, Syntengs, and Native Christians, who are all practically one tribe, form 85 per cent of the total population, Mikirs form 6 per cent, Garos 3 per cent, and Lalungs another Bodo people, 2 per cent,

The Garos are members of the great Bodo family, and are akin to the Kacharis, Rabhas, Meches, and cognate tribes. They are said to be a section of the Thibeto-Burman race, whose original habitat, it has been suggested, was the country near the upper waters of the Yang-tse-kiang and Ho-ang-ho, and who spread in successive waves of immigration over the Assam Valley. Though akin to most of the aboriginal tribes of the Assam Valley, they belong to quite a distinct stock to that from which the Khasis sprang. According to their own traditions they came from Thibet and settled in Kuch Behar. Here they lived for about 400 years, but were finally driven southwards into the hills which bear their name. In appearance the Garos are squat and sturdy, with oblique eyes, large head, thick lips, and large and ugly features which have a peculiarly flattened appearance. Their costume is of the scantiest. The men wear a narrow cloth which is passed between the legs and fastened round the waist, and which does not really cover the part it is intended to conceal. The woman's cloth, which is of the scantiest description, is fastened round the body below the navel, and only reaches a few inches down the thigh. But what they save in clothing they spend in jewellery, and there are few women in the world who are so prodigal in earrings, though it is for quantity not quality that they are conspicuous. Girls will sometimes wear in a single ear as many as 60 brass rings, each $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches in circumference and weighing altogether nearly 2lbs. The result of this

The Garos.

Males	..	...	3,001
Females	...	...	2,767

custom is that the lobes are enormously distended, and the bottom of the ear almost reaches to the shoulder. The Garos live as a rule in long houses built of bamboo, and are most omnivorous feeders. The tribe is divided into certain local groups called *jals*, and the Garos who have settled amongst and intermarried with the Khasis are known as Migams. A more detailed account of the Garos and their customs will be found in the monograph on that tribe.

The Khasis and Syntengs.

Males	...	...	72,492
Females	...	...	82,906

The Khasis and Syntengs are a short and sturdy race. They have flat noses, thick lips, eyes which are generally obliquely set, and fair complexions. Their language differentiates them from the other tribesmen of Assam, and their indifference to tradition and readiness to accept new customs, is a dividing line which separates them from the other peoples of India. A detailed monograph on the tribe is under preparation by Major Gurdon, the Deputy Commissioner of the district, and, as they form the great bulk of the population of the district, their manners and customs will be found described in the appropriate sections of the Gazetteer.

The Lalungs.

Males	...	...	1,582
Females	...	...	1,679

The Lalungs are a Bodo tribe, the great bulk of whom are living in Nowgong. A certain number of Lalung villages are, however, to be found in the hills to the north of the Jowai subdivision. Most of the tribal legends describe them as having been originally located in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, and as moving into the

plains because they disliked the principle laid down by the Khasis that all property should descend through the female. According to another tradition they were originally settled near Dimapur, but moved into the hills to escape the disagreeable duty of providing the Kachari Raja with a daily ration of six seers of human milk. The tribe is divided into a number of clans whose names suggest a totemistic origin, and all of which, except the Masorang, are exogamous. The rule of inheritance is peculiar. A woman may either enter her husband's clan, or the husband may enter the wife's, but all property and children of the marriage belong to the clan which was adopted at the time of the wedding. In the days of native rule the Lalungs are said to have offered eight human victims annually to their gods.

Mikirs.

Males	...	...	6,583
Females	...	...	6,260

According to Colonel Dalton, the Mikirs were originally settled in the North Cachar Hills, but were driven westward into Jaintia territory by the Kacharis. Dissatisfied with the reception accorded to them there, they sent an embassy to the Ahom governor at Raha, offering to place themselves under the protection of his master. But the luckless delegates were unable to make themselves understood and they were, forthwith, buried alive in a tank which that officer happened to be excavating. Hostilities ensued, but the Mikirs were soon suppressed, and were settled in the hills that bear their name, though a considerable colony are still

to be found in south Kamrup and the northern slopes of the Khasi Hills. They are divided into four tribes—Chintong, Ronghang, Amri, Dumrali—and these tribes are again subdivided into various exogamous groups. In the hills the Mikirs live by *jhum* or shifting cultivation and raise crops of cotton, chillies, rice, and vegetables. All the members of a family live in one house, which is thus of considerable size. Their religion is of the usual animistic type, and is chiefly concerned with the propitiation of evil spirits. Infant marriage is unknown, and sexual license within the tribe prior to marriage is tolerated. Further information with regard to the Mikirs will be found in the monograph on that tribe.

Religion. Classified by religion the population of the district in 1901 was distributed as follows:—Animistic 88·2 per cent, Christians 8·5 per cent, Hindus 2·7 per cent, and Muhammadans 0·6 per cent.

The natural religion of the Khasis does not differ in essentials from that of the other tribesmen of Assam. They believe in a future state, but do not trouble themselves much about it. Misfortunes are attributed to evil spirits, and steps are at once taken to ascertain who it is who is offended and how he best may be propitiated Egg-breaking is the system of divination usually employed, and is thus described by Mr. Shadwell :—

"Each case of sickness or other calamity is attributed to the influence of some evil spirit, and the first step is to ascertain what particular spirit has been at work, and for this the great institution of egg-healing is brought into play. An expert (but not a professional) sits down before a board, in the centre of which he places an egg on a few grains of rice ; after invoking the egg to

speak the truth, he sweeps the rice off the board, excepting one grain left on any spot fancy dictates. Then naming a particular spirit, he asks that if he be the cause of evil, a part of the shell of the egg may be deposited near the grain of rice ; he then strikes the egg sharply on the centre of the board. This process is repeated, if necessary, till the required information is obtained. The next thing is to discover what sort of offering will be acceptable to the spirit. This is ascertained in a precisely similar way, but the desired result is often not arrived at till much time and many eggs have been expended."

A Khasi will not start on a journey or undertake any business of importance, without first ascertaining by this means whether the result is likely to be favourable.

The Khasis recognize a principal god or creator, to whom a cock or goat should be sacrificed each year. The ancestors of the family and clan are also worshipped, but the whole question of the religion and customs of the Khasis is discussed at length in the monograph on the tribe, so that any detailed disquisition here would be out of place. One of their superstitions is, however, so curious that it cannot be allowed to pass unnoticed. The tradition runs that there was once in a cave near Cherrapunji a gigantic snake or *thlen*, which caused great havoc amongst men and animals. At last, one man, more venturous than his fellows, took with him to the cave a herd of goats, and offered them one by one to the monster. The snake soon learnt to open its mouth to be fed at a given signal, and the man then made a lump of iron red hot, threw it into its mouth, and killed it. The body was then cut up and eaten, but one small piece remained, from which sprang a multitude of *thlens*. These *thlens* attach themselves to different families, and bring wealth

and prosperity, but only if they are from time to time fed on human blood. To satisfy this craving a human being must be killed, and the hairs, the tips of the fingers, and a little blood offered to the snake. Many families are known or suspected to be *Ri thlen*, or keepers of the *thlen*, and murders are not unfrequently committed in consequence of this awful superstition. Another quaint superstition which exists among the Syntengs is that of *Taro*, or the casting out of the devil. In olden days a person who considered that his persistent ill-fortune was due to the presence of some malignant spirit in his house, threw all his property out of doors and abandoned it, in the hope that the devil would go with his goods and chattels. At the present time such a person contents himself with throwing away one or two worthless articles.

Christianity. The Khasis have, however, shown themselves peculiarly susceptible to the influences of Christianity. The Welsh Calvinistic Methodists opened a mission in the hills in 1841. During the first quarter of a century they made very little progress, and by 1871 they had only succeeded in converting about 500 persons. The work then received a great impulse from the labours of the Reverend Jerman Jones and Dr. Griffiths, a medical missionary, and the number of converts grew apace. In 1881, there were 1,895 Native Christians in the district, in 1891, there were 6,941, and in 1901, no less than 17,125. Classified by sect, the mission had, according to the census returns, 1,796 converts in 1881, 6,766 in 1891, and 15,937 in 1901. In 1905, according to their own returns, the missionaries

had a following of about 23,000 souls, while from 1,000 to 1,500 converts are annually admitted into the church. The process of conversion originally seems to have been fairly logical. The Khasis ascribed most of their misfortunes, physical and material, to the agency of evil spirits, and their religion largely consists of the propitiation of these demons. When they found that the medicines of the early medical missionaries did them more good than their ancestral pujahs, they were inclined to question the truth of their own beliefs. The Khasi religion in itself possesses few attractions, and there are no ties of caste or social or family restrictions to act as an obstacle to conversion. On the other hand, the fact that converts are debarred from attending markets on a Sunday, that they are deprived of the benefit of unrestricted divorce, and that drunkenness is forbidden, acts as a deterrent to the less spiritually minded members of the tribe. The Christians are, however, the most prosperous and the most civilized section of the community, and this is a fact which is bound to exercise a great influence upon the people. It would hardly be too much to say that now-a-days it is the correct thing in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills to be a Christian. Good houses, good clothes, cleanliness and prosperity are the outward and visible signs of the members of the church. The old Khasi religion is becoming a genuine paganism, a religion of the villages. The more advanced and better educated section of the community have outgrown it, and Christianity is the only religion ready to their hand to take its place. The schools of the district are in the hands of the missionaries,

and the children thus come early under the influence of Christian thought and principles.

In addition to the Welsh Calvinists, there is a Roman Catholic Mission which in 1905 had, according to their own returns, about 900 converts. There is also a small community of members of the Church of England, numbering altogether about 400 souls, who have two small churches at Sokha and Jowai. The Welsh Mission employ altogether twenty-one missionaries in the hills, eleven of whom are ladies. They are stationed at the following places:—Cherrapunji, Jowai, Laitlyngkot, Mairang, Maoflang, Shangpung, Shella, Wajijer, and Shillong. The Roman Catholics have six missionaries and ten sisters in the district. The missionaries are stationed at Shillong, Cherrapunji, and Laitkynsew, and at Raliang and Lamin in the Jowai subdivision. Work was first begun by the Roman Catholics in 1890.

Other religions. More than three-fifths of the Hindu, and more than half of the Muhammadan population of the district were enumerated in the town of Shillong. Neither of these creeds possess any attractions for a Khasi. Other religions which had a few followers were—Sikhs (9), Jains (3), Buddhists (55), and Brahmos (83).

Occupations. In 1901, 76 per cent of the population returned agriculture as their means of occupation, a proportion that was lower than that returned for any British district in the Province. This was partly due to the fact that in a sparsely populated district like the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, the inhabitants even of a little town like Shillong,

form an appreciable section of the total population. Over 11 per cent of the people, considerably more than half of whom were women, described themselves as supported by general labour. Some of these persons were, no doubt, employed in the coal mines and lime quarries of the district, and others in carrying loads to the different markets situated in the hills, for the Khasi is an indefatigable trader, but most of them were to some extent supported by cultivation. The occupations of the people in 1901 were distributed under 520 heads, details for which will be found in the report on the census taken in that year. Such a classification is, however, too elaborate for a district like the Khasi and Jaintia Hills, and an examination of these figures would serve no useful purpose. The number of persons returned under each of the eight main orders was as follows :— Government, 2,490 ; pasture and agriculture, 155,641 ; personal service, 2,553 ; preparation and supply of material substances, 12,108 ; commerce, transport and storage, 3,420 ; professions, 2,295 ; unskilled labour, not agricultural, 23,131 ; means of subsistence independent of occupation, 612.

CHAPTER IV.

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTS.

Crops raised—Rice—Millets—Maize and Job's tears—Potatoes—Oranges—Pan and black-pepper—Areca nut—Bay leaf—Cinnamon—Experimental farms—Agricultural implements—Livestock—Bee-keeping—Forests.

Crops raised. The staple crops raised by the Khasis are wet and dry rice, various kinds of millets, maize, potatoes, a small tuber called *sohphlang*, cotton, pineapples, oranges, betel-nut, pan, and bay leaves, and in the gardens round their houses vegetables, pulse, and occasionally sugarcane. There are no statistics to show the area under each crop.

Rice: wet rice. Wet rice is grown in the valleys with which the hills are intersected, both in the Bhoi country and the northern portion of the high plateau. The inhabitants of the hills near Cherrapunji depend for their rice supply upon the plains of Sylhet. About the middle of February, or even earlier, the villagers turn the water on to their fields. This water is allowed to remain for three or four weeks till the soil is thoroughly saturated, and is then drained off. The land is hoed up twice, and the water turned again on to the fields for another ten or fifteen days. The ground is then hoed up two or three times, and harrowed till it has been reduced to a fine puddle, and the seed is sown in May or June. The system followed varies, however, in different portions of the district. On the

higher plateau the villagers often hoe the ground only once and puddle the soil by driving cattle over it. When the plant is about six inches high, water is again introduced, and allowed to stand for about two months, when it is let off for a few days to allow the field to be weeded. After weeding it is again let in, and is not drained off till the crop is ripe for the sickle in October or November. Rice is hardly ever transplanted, except to a small extent in the Bhoi country, and the plough is only used in the Bhoi country and the Jaintia Hills. The fields on which wet rice is grown are usually well manured with cowdung.

Dry rice.

Upland rice is grown on the hillsides. About the middle of September, the soil is lightly hoed up and the grass with the earth attaching to the roots allowed to dry. In February, these sods are collected into little heaps and burnt, and a few weeks afterwards, when the spring rains fall, the ashes are scattered over the ground. The field is then hoed up, and the rice sown in April or May. In the neighbourhood of Shillong dry rice is generally sown on land from which a crop of potatoes has been already taken, and where this is the case only a light hoeing is required. Harvesting goes on on the high plateau in October and November, but in the lower hills it sometimes lasts till the end of December. High land rice is seldom grown twice running on the same spot, and after one crop a fallow period of four or five years is usually allowed.

Threshing, etc.

After the paddy has been reaped it is piled up in stacks in the field and left for two or three weeks, as that

renders it easier to thresh. Cattle are not used for this purpose as in the plains, and the villagers either tread out the grain with their feet, or beat it out with a stick, or take it up in handfuls and beat it against a stone. The grain is then winnowed by being allowed to fall from some height on to the ground, and is stored in great drums made of bamboo mats. When required for food it is husked in a large wooden pestle and mortar. The straw is sometimes used as fodder, or is burnt and used as manure, but is more generally thrown away.

Millets. Millets are of three kinds—*raitruh* (*eleusine coracana*), *raishan* (*paspalum sanguinale*) and *raisoh*. The first and the last are grown on land covered with bamboos or trees which have been felled and burnt as they lie. The soil, which has been manured by the ashes of the jungle, is not even hoed up, and the seeds are dibbled in amongst the ashes. The crop is sown in April and May, and reaped about six months later. On the Shillong plateau *raitruh* is generally sown amongst the potato plants, whereas in the War country it is raised in separate fields. *Raishan* is grown on the hillsides of the high plateau after the ground has been well hoed up and pulvarized. It is sown about a month later than the other two varieties, and reaped at the same time. Millet is threshed in the same way as rice.

Maize and Job's tears. Maize is either grown in garden ground or is sown in the potato fields at the time when the tubers are earthed up. It is usually sown in April and May and ripens

in August or September. The maize fields are well hoed, and are treated with manure. Job's tears (*coix lachryma*) are usually sown on high grass land, in conjunction with potatoes, *raitruh* or *sohphlang*. After a single crop the land is allowed to lie fallow for four or five years. The seed is sown betwen May and June and reaped in November and December.

Potatoes. Potatoes are extensively grown on the higher slopes, and in lower land which has been well drained. They were first introduced in 1830 by Mr. David Scott, and were much appreciated by the Khasis. In 1881-82, the recorded export of potatoes from the Province amounted to 127,000 maunds. Five years later the tuber was attacked by a disease due to the presence of a fungus (*phytophthora infestans*), and in the following season the crop is said to have rotted in the ground. In 1887-88, the total export of potatoes fell to 42,000 maunds, or little more than one-third of the exports of the previous year. This was a great decrease, but it was followed by a still further depression in the potato trade, and for the next thirteen years the annual exports never amounted to as much as 30,000 maunds. Bottom was reached in 1899-00, when the total reported exports only amounted to 5,000 maunds. The tide then turned, and in 1903-04 the exports nearly reached 51,000 maunds. This great improvement was due to the introduction of the Naini Tal potato in 1897. This tuber yields a fine return, and is not nearly so susceptible to disease as the indigenous variety. In considering the figures of export it must be borne in mind that these figures are

for the Province as a whole, and that owing to the system under which they are collected they cannot lay much claim to accuracy.* It is, however, doubtful whether any appreciable quantity of potatoes is exported from any portion of the Province except the Khasi Hills. Two crops are raised in the district. The first is sown in February and March, and is gathered in June and July, the second is sown in July and August, and is harvested in November and December. The turf is pared, and the sods are laid in long ridges and burnt. Holes are then dug about nine inches deep, and the same distance from one another. These holes are partially filled in with loose earth, and a potato, which is often divided into two halves, is placed in each. They are then filled up with dry manure and soil. When the plant is about six inches high, the ground about the roots is loosened and the plant earthed up. Potatoes are also grown on land which is cropped from year to year. Each hole receives a handful of cowdung, and the yield is greater than when grown on the hill-side. The *sohphlang* (*flemingia vestita*) is either grown between the Job's tears, or on land which has already yielded a crop of potatoes. It is sown in March and April and gathered in the winter months, and is always eaten raw.

Oranges. Oranges are grown along the southern base of the hills from Nongjri in the east to Law on the border of

* Most of the potatoes are carried by country boat, and the traffic registrar at Bhairab bazar has no means of compelling the boatmen to answer his enquiries or of testing the accuracy of their replies. No effective check can be exercised upon his tables.

the Garo Hills. The plantations extend from the foot of the hills to a height of about 1,500 feet, and are carried up the ravines which score the southern face of the high plateau. A few trees are grown in the neighbourhood of Shillong, 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, but at this elevation they do not do well. The soil of the War country, as the southern face of the hills is called, is very fertile, though outwardly it seems to be composed of rocks and pebbles. Oranges do best on limestone soil, and the trees at Tyrna enjoy a great reputation, but many of the plantations have been put out on soil in which there is very little lime. The trees are generally raised from seed which is selected with great care. The pips are placed in water, and only the ones that sink are used. They are sown on a layer of earth about nine inches thick, which is shaded from the sun and sprinkled with water at night. The plants are left here for four months or so till May or June, and are then transferred to a nursery where they stay till they are two or three years old. Trees are also occasionally propagated from cuttings, a somewhat speedier method than that of raising them from pips.

The first step to be taken when preparing a plantation is to cut and burn the jungle and weed out the roots of *ikra*. The ground is then put out with plantains, and when they have attained a reasonable size, orange trees, jack-fruit trees, areca palms, and bay trees are planted in their shade. This transfer from the nursery to the plantation takes place in May or June, and at the end of the rains, the young orange trees are pruned. After

three years the plantains are dug out, as by this time the other trees are firmly established, and periodical weeding is all that is required for the upkeep of the plantation. Orange trees begin to bear when they are six or seven years old. They suffer much from the depredations of a borer, and heavy rain in April is injurious.

The export trade is in the hands of Bengalis, most of them natives of Sylhet, who visit the gardens and the local markets such as Therria, Bholaganj, Maodon, Lyngkhat, Shella, Ballat, Ranikar, Maobang, and Tallab. Chhatak is the centre from which oranges are consigned to Calcutta. In 1903-04, it was said that more than sixty million oranges were exported from the Province. Little reliance can, however, be placed upon these figures. Thirty to thirty-two oranges make one *bhar*, and 100 *bhars* one *shispah*. A *shispah* sells in ordinary years for from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20, but when the crop has been a poor one the price sometimes runs as high as Rs. 45.

Pan and black-pepper.

Pan and black-pepper are very much alike. The first is a very important crop and is grown extensively along the southern border of the district. The cultivation of black-pepper is very limited. Both are creepers, and require trees for their support. Poma (*cedrela toona*), jack, betel-nut, and two or three other kinds of trees are generally thought to be most suitable. Both *pan* and pepper are propagated from cuttings, which require a moist and shady situation, and in dry localities recourse

is had to artificial irrigation, the water being carried to the gardens in bamboo pipes. Decayed wood, which also serves as a manure, is placed over the roots of the vines to keep them moist and cool.

Pan begins to yield leaf two or three years after it has been planted. The leaves are gathered at intervals of three or four months from fully matured plants, and are counted as follow :—one bundle or *tap* contains 160 leaves and 20 *taps* make one *kuri*. The normal price of a *kuri* of *pan* is from Re. 1 to Rs. 3, prices being lowest in the rains and highest in March and April. Black-pepper begins to bear four years after it has been planted. The berries ripen in December and January and, after plucking, are cured by drying in the sun.

Betel-nut is a profitable crop and ranks in importance with oranges and *pan*. It is grown all along the southern face of the district up to an elevation of 1,500 feet. The betel-nut tree is raised from seed. The seed-nuts are taken from selected trees, and are sown in a nursery and the seedlings, when two or three years old, are trans ferred to their permanent quarters. The palms are planted out with oranges and other trees, and the plantations require no cultivation beyond a weeding twice a year. The trees begin to yield when eight to ten years old. A good tree will bear four bunches containing about 600 nuts, but two bunches per tree is the more usual rate. The nuts ripen at the beginning of the year and are collected between February and May. Green nuts **Areca nut.**

also are plucked for sale. Ripe nuts are cured, when so desired, by steeping them in a tank for several months.

Betel-nuts are counted as follows :—10 nuts make 1 *gai* or *kynti*; 40 *gais* make one *bih* or *kani*; 16 *bihs* make one *lynti*. A *kani* of nuts (400) sells from As 10 to Re. 1.

Bay leaf: tezpat. Bay trees are generally allowed to seed themselves, and the young shoot, when required, is dug up and transferred to the plantation in May or June. The trees begin to yield when from eight to ten years old. The twigs are lopped off with a *dao*, and the leaves, when dry, are packed in long bamboo baskets each of which holds about 25 seers. The usual price obtained by the growers for bay leaf is Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per maund.

Cinnamon. The Khasi cinnamon is not a cultivated product but the tree grows wild in the warmer parts of the district. When it is proposed to convert it into spice, the tree is cut down, the twigs are cut into sticks about two feet long, the outer skin or cuticle is scraped off with a knife, and finally the bark is stripped off and dried.

Experimental farms. In 1873, an experimental farm was opened on the high plateau of Shillong at an elevation of about 5,900 feet above the level of the sea. Experiments were made with new varieties of potato and different kinds of fruit trees, but the farm was not successful. It had been started on somewhat ambitious lines with a European Superintendent, and in the two years 1874—76 it showed a deficit of Rs. 23,000. Financial considerations at that time

rendered it impossible to devote so large a sum to agricultural experiments, the Superintendent was discharged, and the farm, after being carried on for a few years on a much more modest scale, was finally abandoned altogether. Cattle, sheep, and pigs had been imported at considerable cost from England, but in 1875-76 disease broke out in a virulent form and nearly all the animals died.

In 1897-98, an experimental farm was opened once more in almost the same locality. Experiments made with wheat, barley, and oats were not successful, but a considerable stimulus was given to agriculture by the introduction of new varieties of potato. The old Khasi potato had seriously deteriorated, and the Naini Tal variety, which was imported to the farm, has practically become the potato of commerce in the hills. The plant is liable to blight, and new varieties have to be imported to the district at intervals of a few years. The system of storing fodder in silos for use in the dry months of winter was introduced and is being adopted by the Khasis. A model dairy was started in 1900 in connection with the farm and proved extremely profitable. The Khasi cows are poor milkers, but such milk as they give is unusually rich, and the butter made was of exceptionally good quality. Two private dairies were subsequently opened, and the Government dairy was abandoned. With the object of improving the indigenous breed of cattle a herd of cross bred English cows and a bull were imported from Patna in 1902, and two Bhutia cows in 1903. The latter are a cross between a

mithan bull (*bos frontalis*) and a Thibetan cow. English and Australian pigs were also purchased in December 1902, and have been breeding well.

An experimental fruit garden was opened in 1902, at an elevation of about 5,300 feet above the level of the sea. Fruit trees of all kinds have been planted, but the fact that the rains break so early in the year is a serious obstacle to their due development. A tropical plantation was opened in 1904 at Wahjain on the southern face of the Khasi Hills, at an elevation of about 1,000 feet above the level of the sea. A large number of spices and tropical fruits have been planted out. Coffee and arrowroot have already been grown successfully by Khasis in this locality. Experiments have also been made with tea on the high plateau, and attempts have been made to introduce the cultivation of silk. Seed of the univoltine worm was procured from France, and the cocoons were sent to that country for valuation. They were priced at about Rs. 240 per maund of dry cocoons, which is equivalent to Rs. 80 per maund of green cocoons, or four times the price ordinarily obtained in the silk-rearing districts of Bengal. It is hoped that the industry may be adopted by the Khasis and steps are being taken to plant mulberry trees in the hills.

Agricultural implements.

The ordinary agricultural implements of the Khasi are a hoe with a short handle and a triangular head, affixed not at a right but at an acute angle to the shaft, a sickle (*rashi*), three or four kinds of daos or bill-hooks, a

harrow (*ka moi*), a crowbar, which is used for the construction of irrigation channels, sieves, and winnowing baskets. The plough used by the Syntengs resembles the one in use in the plains of the Province.

Livestock. The livestock of the Khasis consist of cattle, goats, pigs, and poultry. The cattle are a sturdy little breed, and are only kept for food and for their manure, the indigenous Khasi leaving all the milk to the calf. Buffaloes are kept in the neighbourhood of Shillong by Nepalese herdsmen. They are not used as draught animals and the bullocks used on the Shillong-Gauhati road are all of the white Hissar breed. The small and sturdy Manipuri ox, which is not unlike the Khasi animal has proved most successful as a draught animal on the Imphal-Dimapur road, a fact which suggests that a trial might be given to the animals of the Khasi Hills. The Khasi pig is of the ordinary black variety. Sheep and poultry, including turkeys, are reared for the Shillong market.

Bee-keeping. Considerable quantities of honey are consumed and sold in the Khasi Hills, the ordinary price paid for honey in the comb in the Shillong bazar being 3 to 4 annas per lb. The bees from which this honey is obtained are of two kinds, the *lywai* or large wild bee, and the *ngap*, a smaller variety which is not unfrequently domesticated. The *lywai* invariably make their nest in the clefts of high and inaccessible rocks, and are smoked out and generally suffocated before any attempt is made to take

the comb. The *ngap* live in hollow trees and in holes under stones. The Khasis take advantage of this habit to prepare suitable nests for the swarms when they come up from the valleys in the summer, and when they have settled in these places catch and hive them. This is done by simply searching for the queen bee and carrying her off, and if the swarm offers any resistance they are smoked enough to stupefy but not to kill them. The nests are generally traced by the deposits left by the bees. When once these have been found the Khasis go to the spot early in the morning while the air is still quite clear, and note the direction from which the insects come. The native form of hive is a hollow piece of wood about two and a half feet long and one foot in diameter, with a door at either end. The bees are of a migratory character and generally spend the winter in the valleys, returning to the high plateau towards the end of May.*

Forests. The hills were probably at one time covered with a dense growth of timber, but fires and the system of *jhum* cultivation have practically denuded the high plateau, and the remains of the forest are only to be seen in the magnificent sacred groves which now crown the summits of the higher hills. In 1874, when the Viceroy visited Shillong he directed that steps should be taken to reserve certain tracts for the growth of timber, and in 1877 the following areas in the Khasi Hills were set

* *Vide* enclosures to letter from Secretary to Chief Commissioner No. 4431, dated 16th August 1882, to the Government of India in the Revenue and Agriculture Department.

aside for the purpose; twenty blocks were also reserved in the Jaintia Hills.

State in which situated.	Name of forest.	Approximate area in square miles.	State in which situated.	Name of forest	Approximate area in square miles.
Cherra ...	Maophan Siem	1¾	Mylliem ...	Umtru ...	2¼
Do. ...	Thynriew Siar	¼	Do. ...	Um Ran ...	1½
Do. ...	Ka Lyng-Kyper	¼	Nongkhlao	Ter Sung ...	1
Khyrim ...	Ryngab Forest	½	Do. ...	Ka Lao-syn-iong near Maonai-punji.	1½
Langrin ...	Kulai-L y n g - Sngun.	6¼	Do. ...	Mairang forest	¼
Maharam ...	Lao Blei ...	½	Do. ...	Nongbri ...	2½
Do. ...	Sakuang ...	1½	Nongspung...	Nongspung ...	¾
Do. ...	Nong Kydait *alias* Ryng-byneng.	8½	Do. ...	Lyngkhoi forest	¼
Do. ...	Rang Mao ...	1	Nongstoin ...	N o n g s t o i n forest.	4½
Marriw ...	Ka Miang Sain near Nongka Sen.	¾	Rambrai ...	Maodo forest...	7
Do. ...	Lang Krai ...	½	Maoflang ...	Um-Ka-Wang...	¼
Do. ...	Tersung ...	1	Maoflang and Nonglewai.	Ka Khlao Ryngi Sohlong.	1
Maoiang ...	Mar Shillong ...	1½	Nonglewai ...	Ka Khlao Mao Kaleng.	½
Do. ...	Ka Lao Sain ...	1¼	Sohiong ...	Lao Nongkseh	2¾
Maosanram ...	Maosanram ...	1½	Do. ...	Lao Sohiong ...	¼
Mylliem ...	Maoreng ...	3¾	Laitlyngkot...	Laitlyngkot ...	2¼
Do. ...	Maopat ...	1	Lait-Kroh ...	Lait-Kroh ...	¾
Do. ...	Forest bordering on the new cart road.	1¾	Maosmai ...	Kyrna Ka Dier	¼
			Nonglang ...	Nongkynah ...	¾

Subsequently the Jirang and Narpuh forests were added to this list. In these reserved tracts trees can

only be cut under a pass from the Deputy Commissioner, but the villagers are themselves expected to keep the fire lines clean. In 1878, a block of land, fifty square miles in area, near Saipung in the south-east corner of the Jaintia Hills, was constituted a reserve. This forest is said to contain a quantity of nahor (*mesua ferrea*), and sam (*artocarpus chaplasha*), but up to date it has not been worked. Certain forest blocks which cover altogether a few square miles of land have also been reserved in the neighbourhood of Shillong. They contain little but pine, and have been taken up with the object of protecting the station water-supply, or of forming a fuel reserve, or for some other purpose. These blocks are (1) Upper Shillong; (2) Riat Laban and Kench's trace; (3) Laitkor, Laitumkhrah, and Block No. II; (4) a tree nursery reserve; and (5) the Barpani forest. A staff consisting of one deputy ranger, one head guard, and eight guards is maintained in the district, and royalty is levied on all forest produce imported into the plains. If this produce has come from Khasi territory royalty is levied at half the usual rates and the Seim is allowed to collect the other half.

The forests on the northern ranges and on the southern faces of the hills have already been described in the paragraphs on the flora of the district. The most valuable timber trees are, on the north, sal (*shorea robusta*), and nahor; and on the south nahor, poma (*cedrela toona*), champa (*michelia champaca*), and gundroi (*cinnamomum glanduliferum*)

CHAPTER V.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Arts and industries—Lac—Food and dress—Rents and wages—Prices—Economic condition of the people—Communications—Navigable rivers—Post and telegraph—Trade—Shillong—Cherrapunji—Jowai.

Arts and industries.

The arts and industries of the Khasis are described in the monograph on the tribe. They include the manufacture of earthenware pottery, iron implements, baskets and mats, jewellery, and cotton cloths. The Khasis make pots, like the Hiras, by laying on the clay in strips without using the wheel. Reference has already been made to the iron industry in Chapter I. Baskets and mats are made of bamboo and cane, and durable nets from the fibre of the pineapple. The jewellery is decidedly artistic, and includes coronets, belts, and silver tassels which are hung from silver ropes. A description of this jewellery with illustrations of the different articles manufactured will be found in a monograph on the Gold and Silver Wares of Assam published at Shillong in 1905. An account of the system of weaving will be found in a monograph on the Cotton Fabrics of Assam, published by the Superintendent of Government Printing at Calcutta in 1897. The fishing industry, as is only natural in a mountainous country, is not of very great inportance. Fish

are occasionally netted but more often poisoned with plants called *khariw*, *sohramthein*, *jaiur*, and *sohlew*, or occasionally with lime.

Lac. Lac is generally reared on arhar (*cajanus indicus*), and on two shrubs which are called by the Bhois *snam nongdak* and *thesit*. The method of propagation is as follows:—Pieces of stick lac containing living insects are placed in baskets, and tied on to the twigs of the tree on which the next crop is to be grown. After a few days the insects crawl on to the young branches, and begin to feed and secrete the resin. They are left undisturbed for about six months, and the twigs encrusted with the secretion are then picked off. Ants and the caterpillars of a small moth sometimes do much damage to the insect, and a heavy storm at the time when they are spreading over the tree will destroy them altogether. The lac produced is exported in the crude form of stick lac. Most of it is reared by Bhois and Mikirs in the Bhoi circle on the Nowgong and Kamrup borders.

Food and dress The staple food of the people is rice and curry. They also consume considerable quantities of dried fish and are fond of most kinds of meat, and more especially of pork. Some of the Syntengs abstain from beef, but the Khasis have no scruples on the subject. Milk, like the rest of the hill tribes, they will not touch, and unlike their neighbours on the east and west they do not eat dogs. The unconverted hillmen are heavy drinkers, and distil a strong spirit from rice. Native Christians and Pagans alike consume large quantities

of tamul pan, a proceeding which has a most disfiguring effect upon their mouths. The ordinary village man wears a small kilt, a sleeveless coat, and a cloth cap with peaks in front and at the rear. Khasi women wear a narrow cloth as underclothing, a striped cloth tied round the waist, and another cloth with a fringed border knotted on both the shoulders. Synteng women wear a cloth smoothed round the body fastened above the bust and reaching to the ankles, with a shawl that is thrown over the shoulders and knotted in front. Both Khasi and Synteng women wear a cloth tied over the head, and chemises are now coming very generally into fashion. Civilized Khasis affect knickerbockers, which are often of white flannel, stockings, and boots, with European coats and waistcoats. Their calves and thighs are generally designed upon a very ample scale and the effect is not artistic.

The ordinary villager's house is a low dirty building. The thatched roof reaches nearly to the ground, and the walls are of planks or plastered reeds. On the southern portion of the high plateau, the walls are sometimes built of stone. There is a porch in front flush with the ground, and behind are two rooms with boarded floors. Wealthy Khasis build very comfortable cottages of a European pattern.

Rents and Wages.

Land is not often sublet amongst the Khasis, but flat rice land in the valleys is occasionally leased out, the owner generally taking about a quarter of the gross produce. For land required for orange groves on the

southern slopes of the hills, the proportion of the produce taken by the landlord is one-third. The customary rate of wages in the villages for hired labour is six annas a day for a man and four annas for a woman.

Prices.

Prices, as is only natural, are high, as the district does not produce sufficient grain to feed the inhabitants, and the cost of transport from the plains is heavy. The ordinary price of common rice in Shillong ranges from 8 to 10 seers for a rupee. In Jowai it is generally about two seers a rupee cheaper. Of recent years there has been a general tendency for the price of rice and salt to fall. In 1880, only 5 seers of salt were procurable at Shillong for a rupee; in 1905 the same sum would purchase 8½ seers. Salt is much dearer at Jowai than at Shillong, as that place is not connected by a cart road with the plains. The prices of rice and salt in 1880, 1890, 1900, and subsequent years will be found in Table V.

Economic condition of the people.

The people as a whole are well-to-do. They are enterprizing and industrious, and are not hampered by that spirit of conservatism which in many parts of India is so fatal to all progress. On the southern slopes of the hills, the Khasis, prior to the earthquake, made large profits from lime, oranges, and areca nut. Since that date their profits have been reduced but are still considerable. The fact that the headquarters of the Administration are located at Shillong puts a large sum of money in circulation from which the people in the neighbourhood cannot fail to reap their profit. The Khasis have succeeded in keeping nearly the whole of

the trade of the district in their hands, and this in itself must be a considerable source of wealth.

Communications. Cart roads.

A fine cart road runs through the district from Gauhati, on the Brahmaputra, to Cherrapunji. From here a bridle path connects the high plateau with the plains of Sylhet. This road enters the district at Barnihat 16 miles from Gauhati. There are dak bungalows at Barnihat, Nongpoh (30 miles from Gauhati) and at Umsning or Naia Bungalow (45 miles). Shillong itself is 63½ miles from Gauhati. The road has been carefully aligned, and is metalled and bridged throughout. Pony tongas ply between Gauhati and Shillong, the journey being usually performed in between eight and nine hours. The introduction of a service of motor cars is under consideration. From Shillong it is 33½ miles to Cherrapunji. There are dak bungalows at that place, and at Dumpep 17¾ miles from Shillong. Six miles south of Shillong a driving road branches off to the westward to Maoflang, 9 miles further on. There is a dak bungalow at Maoflang, and the place is connected by a bridle path with the Cherrapunji cart road, which it joins 1¾ miles north of the rest house at Serrarim, and 10 miles north of Cherrapunji. The scenery through which these roads pass is extremely picturesque. Forty-two miles from Gauhati the road emerges from the forest, and winds its way through rolling grassy hills. The Umiam is crossed 9 miles from Shillong, and the road then mounts to the Shillong plateau, through fragrant pinewoods from which a magnificent view is obtained of the gorge of the

Umiam and the slopes of the Dingiei hill. From Shillong there is a climb of about 900 feet along very easy gradients to the high plateau, and from there to Dumpep the route lies through grassy downs. From Dumpep the road runs for the most part along the edge of the deep ravine of a tributary of the Therria river. The bridle path from Maoflang to Serrarim traverses the beautiful gorge of the Bogapani, and crosses that river by a suspension bridge.

Bridle paths. From Maoflang a bridle path runs north and westward through Sohiong (7 miles), Mairang (15 miles), and Nongkhlao (25 miles) to the border of the Kamrup district 30 miles beyond Nongkhlao. There are inspection bungalows at Mairang and Nongkhlao. This was the old road which connected Assam with the Surma Valley before the headquarters of the district were transferred to Shillong. From Sohiong a road runs westward through Nongstoin to Swangiri near the frontier of the Garo Hills, a total distance of 85 miles, and connects with a bridle path running west from Tura. There are inspection bungalows at Kynchi (13 miles), Nongkasen (24 miles), and Nongstoin (35 miles). From Shillong a bridle path, the first three miles of which are fit for wheeled traffic, runs eastward to Jowai, 34 miles away. There is an inspection bungalow at Maolyngkneng, 16 miles from Shillong. From Jowai a bridle path runs southwards to Jaintiapur in the plains of Sylhet 30¼ miles away. There are inspection bungalows at Jarain, 12 miles, and Syndai, 22 miles from Jowai.

Another path runs eastward through Shangpung, Raliang, and Khonshnong, up to the bank of the Kapili river opposite to the hot springs. It is 32 miles in length, has one inspection bungalow at Shangpung, 13 miles from Jowai, and connects with a bridle path that runs westward from Haflang in the North Cachar Hills. These are, however, only the principal bridle paths maintained, and all over the country there are Khasi paths which are generally passable by a mounted man.

Across some of the streams that intersect these hill paths the Khasis have constructed living bridges. A rubber tree has been planted on either bank and the tendrils have been trained across the stream and have taken root on the further side, thus forming a bridge to which all the repairs are done by Nature herself.

In 1903-04, 94 miles of cart road and 356 miles of bridle path were maintained in the district.

Navigable rivers.

The rivers of the district are not very largely used for the purposes of navigation, but canoes penetrate for a short distance into the hills from the district of Sylhet. The Hari is navigable for canoes carrying from 25 to 30 maunds as far as Borghat. The Lubha is navigable for canoes as far as Lahalein, but is dangerous when the river is swollen in the rains. Canoes can go up the Therria river, as far as Therria ghat in the winter time, and up to Sohryngkew when the river rises. They can also go up the Lakhat to Lakhat bazar. Somewhat larger boats can go up the Shella river to Shella bazar, and up the Jadukata to Rilang bazar.

the outer ranges there is a chain of snowy peaks where over a hundred miles away the giants of the Himalaya tower into the air. The Shillong plateau is broken up with hills, and streams, and valleys. It is watered by the Umshirpi and Umkrah, both of which are precipitated in magnificent cascades, known as the Bishop and the Beadon falls, into a deep gorge and then unite in one stream to join the Umiam. These falls are situated a little to the west of the Gauhati road, about two miles from the cutcherry. The path to them leads through tame and uninteresting fields, which suddenly terminate in a precipitous ravine several hundred feet in depth. The station has been very tastefully laid out amongst the pinewoods, and since 1897 all the buildings have been constructed of timber, reeds, and plaster, and so are practically earthquake-proof. Shillong possesses various attractions which are not to be found in most of the hill stations of the Himalayas. There is a full sized polo ground and a fine race course. There is a charming cricket ground, excellent golf links, beautiful roads along which to drive, and fine breezy downs for a morning gallop. A hotel has recently been opened, and as soon as the place has been rendered more accessible to the outside world it will probably become one of the most popular summer resorts in India.

Shillong became the *sadr* station of the district in 1864, and ten years later the headquarters of the newly appointed Chief Commissioner. But, strictly speaking, the name is a misnomer, as the town is

situated on the plateau of Yeodo,* and Shillong is the name of the peak and of the high plateau to the west of the present station. This plateau is only about five miles from the cutcherry, not as the crow flies, but by a beautifully graded road, which, after crossing the Umshirpi, winds its way through bracken and pine-woods to the higher levels. The Committee who were appointed in 1862 to report on the desirability of Shillong as the headquarters of the district, proposed to locate the station and the sanatorium on the high plateau of Shillong, and to reserve Yeodo for a depôt for invalid European troops and for the lines of a native regiment. Shillong is about 900 feet higher than Yeodo, and though the average rainfall is a little higher,† there is a very perceptible difference in the temperature. Most people will probably regret that effect was not given to the original proposal, and that the station was not built on the higher of the two plateaus. From a perusal of the correspondence it would appear that the difference between the two places was not clearly borne in mind. The Committee distinctly recommended that the civil station and the sanatorium should be located on the plateau of Shillong and the slopes descending thence towards Yeodo, but the Lieutenant-Governor, in his letter acknowledging the receipt of their report, expressed his approval of the removal of the *sadr* station of the district from Cherra to Yeodo. A beginning was no doubt

* Properly Yewduh, from Yew, a bazar, and duh, abbreviation of khadduh, last, *i.e.*, the last bazaar of the series.

† In the six years 1899—1904 the average rainfall of Upper Shillong was only 13 inches more than that of Shillong station, *i.e.*, 95 inches instead of 82.

made on the lower plateau, and when once houses and offices had been erected there, people were, doubtless, loathe to start building five miles away.

The dense pinewoods which are now such a feature in the scenery of the station do not seem to have been in existence in the early sixties. The steep sides of Shillong hill are said to have been partially clad with jungle and brushwood, but the slopes and plateau of Yeodo were mostly devoid of trees. Before the advent of the British the valley of Yeodo seems to have been very sparsely peopled. Some of the Khasis, in fact, considered it to be part of the Bhoi or low country and it was said, though apparently quite erroneously, to be a feverish place. The bazar at Yeodo, the present *burra hat*, was largely attended as it was connected with the religion of the Khasis. The place was said to be a sacred one and solemn sacrifices were offered there and dances held. On these occasions the people attending the bazar had the privilege of paying double the ordinary toll.

Shillong was constituted a station under Act V (B. C.) of 1876 in 1878. Its affairs are managed by a committee of 12 members, presided over by the Deputy Commissioner. Five of the members hold their seats by virtue of their office, and the remaining seven are nominated by the Chief Commissioner. The principal sources of revenue are a tax on houses at 7½ per cent of their annual rental, a water and latrine rate, and a grant from Government. The total income of the station in

1903-04 was over Rs. 25,000. The rates are heavier than in other towns of the Province, and the incidence per head of direct taxation, excluding the house tax assessed on Government buildings, was Rs. 2-11-2 in 1903-04. Details with regard to the income and expenditure of the station in 1890-01 and 1900-01 will be found in Table X.

The total area of the town, including the cantonment, is nearly $4\frac{3}{4}$ square miles, and it is served by $16\frac{1}{2}$ miles of metalled and nearly 6 miles of unmetalled roads. An excellent supply of drinking water is obtained from springs rising in the Shillong range, and is distributed in pipes all over the town. The cantonment covers an area of 445 acres, and had an average annual income during the eight years ending with 1902-03 of about Rs. 6,250.

Cherrapunji.

Cherrapunji is situated in 25° 15′ N., and 91° 44′ E. on a small plateau, from three to four hundred acres in extent, and 4,455 feet above the level of the sea. On the west it is shut in by a low range of hills, while, on the three remaining sides, the cliffs drop steeply to the river gorges by which the station is surrounded. The view from the eastern edge of the plateau is particularly striking. The ravine terminates in a semicircle of precipices, whose slopes, for a considerable height above the river, are covered with brilliant herbage or dense tree forest. Some five hundred feet below the summit, this natural glacis ends, and an absolutely sheer wall of rock, as smooth and perpendicular as though chiselled by the hand

of the most careful mason, shuts in the valley on this side. Lower down the ravine is joined by other gorges, all of which have been carved out of the limestone rock by the rivers hurrying towards the plains, and the view is bounded by ridge upon ridge, whose precipitous slopes are clothed with luxuriant vegetation. The roar of the torrent rises from its bed several thousand feet below, like the distant thunder of surf upon the coast, and, perhaps, is most effective when the valleys are filled with mist, and there is nothing but the distant voice of the waters to tell of the depths beneath. To the south the eye travels for mile upon mile over the levels of Sylhet. The cliff rises sheer, 4,000 feet and more, from the plain, and there are no outlying ranges of lower hills to soften the transition from the mountain to the valley. On a clear day in July the spectacle is sufficiently bizarre. The whole surface of the plain seems one broad lake, dotted over with clumps of trees, and it is almost impossible to realize that this inland sea is in reality a densely peopled district. Cherrapunji itself is a grassy, marshy, plateau, with streams and pools on every side, and huge masses of lime stock rock covered with ferns and moss. The ruins of the old bungalows, which were built of solid masonry, still remain, to recall the time when in spite of its rainfall it was a small but gay European station, and the site of the jail, the cutcherry, the mess, and various other houses can still be seen. At the upper end of the plateau there is a large church and school belonging to the Welsh Presbyterian mission, while the Khasi village nestles on the crest of the first range of hills. The place is rich

alike in monuments and memories. There is a fine stone pillar erected in memory of David Scott, and a massive tomb which covers the remains of Mr. Harry Inglis who most successfully exploited the immense stores of limestone in the neighbourhood. The cemetery, which is set on a hill, affords abundant evidence that many of the poor invalids who were sent to this hill sanatorium, arrived too late to shake off the fevers of the plains. The Khasi tombs are, if anything, more noticeable than those of the Europeans.

Jowai is a prosperous village which stands on a fine triangular plateau 4,422 feet above sea level, and on three sides drops sharply to the Myntdu, or Hari river. It is situated in 25° 26′ N. and 92° 12′ E. and in 1901 had a population of 3,511 souls. It is the residence of the Subdivisional Officer and the centre of a considerable trade. The excellent houses in which nearly all the people dwell is ample evidence of the prosperity of the inhabitants. **Jowai.**

CHAPTER VI.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

General administration—Land revenue—The Jaintia Hills—Country spirit—Opium—Ganja—Income tax—Public Works—Criminal justice—Registration—Civil police—Jail—Education—Medical.

General administration. For general administrative purposes the district is divided into two subdivisions, the Khasi Hills or Shillong and the Jaintia Hills or Jowai. Shillong is under the immediate charge of the Deputy Commissioner, who is allowed one subordinate magistrate as his assistant. The greater part of the subdivision is, in theory, independent territory, and, as will be subsequently explained, some of the criminal and civil work is disposed of by the seims. The Deputy Commissioner is in political relations with these petty chiefs, but as the whole system of administration is of a very simple character, it is very seldom necessary for him to interfere.

Land Revenue. The Jaintia Hills and the following villages in the Khasi Hills are British territory :—Bairong, Jirngam, Laitkroh, Laitlyngkot, Lankadieng, Maobehlarkhar, Maomluh, Maopunkyrtiang, Maosmai, Maothang Sohkhyllum, Marbisu, Mordon, Mynteng, Nongbah, Nongiri, Nongkroh, Nonglait, Nonglang, Nonglongkien, Nongpoh, Nongriangsi, Nongriat, Nongshluit, Nongthymmai, Ramdait, Saitsohpen, Sinai, Sinai Maoshanrut, Sohbar, Tymar, Tynriang, Tynrong, Tyrna, and Umniuh.

In the British villages in the Khasi Hills cultivators pay a tax of Rs. 2 per house. This is collected by sirdars who receive a commission of 10, and in a few cases of 20, per cent. The total receipts under this head are shown in Table VIII, and amount to nearly Rs. 6,000 per annum. Special rules are in force for the leasing of land in Shillong station.* Building sites are sold at an upset price of Rs. 100 per acre to the highest bidder, or are leased for a term of 99 years. Land not fit for building purposes can be sold at an upset price of Rs. 20 per acre. The purchaser of a building site is bound to expend a certain sum on the construction of a house, but this amount in no case exceeds Rs. 1,000 for every acre or portion of an acre and for smaller areas is less.

The Khasi system of land tenure has not as yet been sufficiently explored, and for information on this important subject reference should be made to the monograph on the tribe. According to Khasi custom land apparently belongs not to the seim or to the individual but to the clan. An individual may possess a right of occupancy, but be cannot alienate his land without the permission of a durbar of the clan.

The Jaintia Hills.

The Jaintia Hills were resigned to the British Government by the Raja in 1835, at the time when the Jaintia Parganas were confiscated as a punishment for the murder of three British subjects. Till 1860, the only tax imposed was one he-goat, which was levied from each village, under a system dating from the times of native

* *Vide* page 441 of the Assam Land Revenue Manual.

rule. In 1860, a tax was levied on each house, which was stoutly resisted by the people, and, as soon as this insurrection had been quelled, the imposition of an income tax gave rise to a second revolt which was not suppressed till 1863. After the pacification of the Jaintia Hills house tax was levied at the rate of Re. 1 from the Syntengs, and of Rs. 2 from the Mikirs, Lalungs, and Kukis. In 1883, a full report on the land tenures of the subdivision was submitted by Mr. Heath, the Subdivisional Officer. His report and the action taken on it is summarized as follows in the Introduction to the Assam Land Revenue Manual by Sir William Ward, K.C.S.I., page clxxviii :—

"It was then ascertained that the following tenures existed, classing all lands either as low (*hali*) or high :

Hali lands were subdivided into—

(1) *Raj land*, the private property of the Raja and commonly known as *rajhali*;

(2) *Sanna and bandhari land*, being apparently land held by a kind of middlemen between the Raja and the occupants, called *Sannas* and *Bandharis*, who collected the rent and paid it to the Dalais who paid it to the Raja, the middlemen being rewarded for their trouble by rent-free grants of such land;

(3) *Service lands*, given rent-free to Dalais, Pators, and other officers who carried on the administration ;

(4) *Village puja lands*, being land the occupants of which paid rent, which was set apart in each village for purposes of worship;

(5) *Private lands* held by individuals, and which had been transferred from time to time by mortgage, sale, or otherwise, at the will of the owner;

High lands were subdivided into—

(1) *Private lands*, held like *hali* private lands ;

(2) *Unclaimed land or Government waste,* which anyone might cultivate on payment of rent. This rent was supposed to go to the Raja, but the Dalais often appropriated it.

The final orders of the Chief Commissioner on this report may be summarised thus :—

(i) The house-tax on the Syntengs was raised from Re. 1 to Rs. 2 a house from 1st January 1886, the commission paid to the Dalais for collecting the enhanced tax being at the same time reduced to 10 per cent.

(ii) No land-tax was to be paid on high lands where shifting cultivation took place. The Syntengs were, however, to be given to understand that, while Government sanctioned such shifting cultivation, it would not permit any permanent occupation of high lands, or admit the growth of private rights in them, or pay compensation if such land was taken up by Government for any purpose. Where, however, foreigners or aliens cultivated such lands on payment of rent, the Dalai must pay the rent to Government, retaining only his commission.

(iii) *Rajhali* lands were to be assessed at 10 annas a *bigha.*

(iv) In the case of *private lands* it was decided not to assess a land-tax, but to maintain the principle that the form of direct taxation approved by Government in the Jaintia Hills was a house-tax, that a Synteng paying that tax is charged nothing more for cultivating private land of his own, but that anyone permanently occupying the Government land must pay rent, or revenue, in recognition of the Government right.

(v) In regard to *service lands* it was decided that the service lands of those village officials whom Government appointed or recognized, *i.e.*, Dalais and Pators, should be retained; also those occupied by Lyngdohs, *puja* officials, and Raja's servants, the latter being too insignificant to be worth touching; but that the occupants of all other *rajhali* land should pay rent."

The total area of the *Rajhali* lands is not known, and the private lands have never been surveyed or demarcated. The area of *Rajhali* lands on which revenue was assessed in 1904-05 was 12,209 *bighas.* Land newly taken up is measured up from time to time either by temporary amins or by the head clerk of the subdivisional office. The

question whether such land is *Rajhali* or private land is decided by summary enquiry on the spot. Land revenue and house tax are collected by twenty *dalais* and three *sirdars* who are elected by the people from certain specified clans, subject to the confirmation of the Deputy Commissioner. These people are remunerated by a commission of 10 per cent on their collections.

Country spirit.

Country spirit is largely manufactured by the hillmen for home consumption, just as beer is brewed on farms in Europe. The still consists of a brass retort to which is fitted an earthenware still-head. Two tubes, made of wood covered with plaited straw, lead to two earthenware receivers, which are placed in two vessels of water. Spirit is distilled from rice or millet by the following method.* The rice is boiled till quite soft, and is then drained and spread in thin layers on bamboo trays. When cool it is mixed with a malting preparation and put in a square basket. This preparation saccharifies the rice. The syrup, which drips from the basket, is collected and mixed with the rice and water, and is left to ferment for five or six days. It is then distilled and yields a fairly strong spirit which is sold for from four to six annas a quart. The sale of liquor at markets and by the roadside is prohibited, and the desirability of limiting the number of stills is under consideration. The unlicensed distillation of spirit within a five mile radius of Shillong is prohibited, and the right to distil and sell liquor at three shops in that

* *Vide* Report on the manufacture and quality of country spirits in Assam by J. Weinberg, Esq., Shillong, 1904, page 15.

town is put up to auction. The prices paid for these licenses in 1900-01 and subsequent years will be found in Table IX. They generally fetch from five to six thousand rupees per annum.

Opium. There are only five opium shops in the district situated at Shillong and Nongpoh, and at Umkarto, Mynser and Langjut in the Jowai subdivision. The Khasis are not opium eaters, and the Mikirs and Lalungs in the low hills to the north are the principal consumers of the drug. Only about ten or twelve maunds are annually issued, which is not more than 3 per cent of the consumption of such districts as Sibsagar and Lakhimpur. Details of consumption and the revenue obtained will be found in Table IX.

Ganja. There is one shop for the sale of ganja, which is situated at Shillong. The drug is only taken by foreigners and the total quantity issued is quite insignificant.

Income tax. The receipts from income tax in 1900-01 and successive years will be found in Table VII. For a hill district they are considerable, but this is due to the fact that Shillong is the headquarters of the Administration, and more than three-fourths of the total were realized from salaries and pensions paid by Government. The great majority of the thirty persons assessed in 1903-04 under the head "other sources of income" were traders or contractors.

Public Works. Public works are entrusted to an Executive Engineer, who is also in charge of the Kamrup district, assisted by

three upper and three lower subordinates. In addition to the care of the public buildings the Executive Engineer is concerned with the maintenance of the line of communications from Gauhati to Companyganj in Sylhet, *viâ* Shillong, Dumpep and Maoflang, Cherrapunji, and Therria ghat. He is also in charge of the bridle paths from Shillong to Jowai, and from Cherrapunji to Shella, and of one or two other roads in the neighbourhood of Shillong.

Criminal Justice.

The rulers of the petty states in the Khasi Hills are empowered to try criminal cases in which only their subjects are concerned, and which are not punishable under the Indian Penal Code with imprisonment for five years or some severer penalty. All other cases are referred to the Deputy Commissioner for disposal. Fine is the form of punishment which a Khasi seim most frequently employs. Sentences of imprisonment are occasionally awarded, but the culprit is then, as a rule, detained in the seim's house and compelled to work for him without pay. These cases are heard by the seim and his mantries in open court. The fines imposed consist of sums of money ranging from Rs. 15 to Rs.1,100, plus in each case a pig. The fines are appropriated by the seim and his assessors, so that they have every inducement to convict and to impose heavy sentences. The Khasis are, however, a very democratic people, and any open injustice of this kind would be very speedily resented. The accused person is represented by a friend who pleads his case. Rupees 1,100 was the fine imposed for murder before the advent of the British.

If the prisoner was unable to pay so large a sum he was put to death. In the Jaintia Hills, the Subdivisional Officer is the principal judicial authority subject, of course, to the usual right of appeal to the Deputy Commissioner, and to the maximum punishment that he is empowered to impose. Petty cases are, however, often settled in the village. The jurisdiction of the High Court is barred, except in their criminal capacity over European British subjects, and the Deputy Commissioner exercises the power of life and death. Capital sentences and sentences for a term of seven years' imprisonment and upwards require, however, the confirmation of the Chief Commissioner. Appeals lie to the Deputy Commissioner from the orders of his assistants, if preferred within thirty days. No appeal lies from sentences imposed by the Deputy Commissioner of less than three years' imprisonment. The criminal work of the district is light. In 1904, 183 cases were tried by the Deputy Commissioner and his assistants, in the course of which 293 witnesses were examined.

Civil suits are decided by the seims or other local authorities provided that both parties to the case are subject to their jurisdiction, and that neither party is related to the members of the court. Other cases are heard by the Deputy Commissioner or his assistants. In 1904, 144 civil cases were tried.

Registration. The Registration Act is only in force in the civil station and cantonment of Shillong. The total number of documents registered in 1904 was only 59.

Garrison. A native infantry regiment is stationed at Shillong, and there is a small volunteer corps which in 1904 had a strength of 34.

Civil police. The sanctioned civil police force of the district in 1903 consisted of 23 officers and 183 men, 130 of whom were armed with breech-loading smooth bore carbines. The actual police duties are light, and a considerable proportion of these men are employed on guard duty. The following stations and outposts are maintained. The figures in brackets indicate the strength of the force, at each place: Shillong (16), Jowai (22), Cherrapunji (9) Ishamati (4), and Nongpoh (6).

Jail. There is only one jail in the district which is situated at Shillong. It contains accommodation for 12 under-trial prisoners, and 49 male and 7 female convicts.

Education. The history of education in the Khasi Hills is the history of unusual progress. The Welsh Mission commenced their labours in the district in 1844, but, for some time, their efforts were not attended by any considerable measure of success. In 1853, the missionaries drew but a gloomy picture of the state of education in the Khasi Hills. The Reverend Mr. Lewis wrote as follows to Mr. Moffatt Mills:—"I regret to say that there is no regard paid to education in this country; we have tried to induce them by giving prizes, etc., but nothing seems to avail...... The chiefs give us no help, nor do they give any good example to the people......Not one of the chiefs are able to read themselves, and the Cherra chief is a great opponent to education; both he and his headmen

are always speaking to the people of the unprofitableness of education."* Few people are, however, less conservative than the Khasis, and during the ensuing twenty years there was a great change in their attitude. In the Report of the Inspector of Schools for Assam for 1874-75 it is said "that a much larger proportion of the Khasis know a little of reading, writing, and arithmetic than is the case, probably, in any other district of either Assam or Bengal." There were, in that year, 73 schools attended by 1,666 pupils. Since that date the number of schools and pupils has steadily increased, and in 1900-01 there were 325 schools in the hills and 6,535 pupils. To such an extent has education spread that, in 1901, the proportion of persons able to read and write (57 per mille) was larger in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills than in any other district in the Province. This was partly due to the unusually large number of educated women. In 1901, 34 per mille of the female population could read and write, a figure nearly seven times greater than that reported from any other district. The schools are divided into four grades, high, middle, and upper and lower primary. There is only one high school in the district which is situated at Shillong. There are five middle English schools, two at Maokhar, one at Laitkynsew, one at Cherrapunji and one at Jowai.

The primary schools are scattered about the district. The number of schools of different grades, and the

* Report on the Khasi and Jaintia Hills by A. J. Mills, Esq., p. 10 .

number of pupils reading in them in 1900-01 and subsequent years will be found in Table XIII; while details of the expenditure on education will be found in Table XIV. The educational arrangements in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills are still, to a great extent, in the hands of the Welsh Mission. Government maintains a middle school for European children, a high school, and a training school at Shillong, and makes a grant to the mission for the purposes of education. But, whereas the amount expended on this object by the mission in 1903-04 was nearly Rs. 65,000, the cost to Government was less than one-third of this sum. The European school was opened in 1881, closed after the earthquake of 1897, and re-opened three years later. The number of pupils on the rolls in May 1905 was 22.

In the Jowai subdivision education is not much in favour with the unconverted tribesmen, and the majority of the children who attend school are Christians. This is not the case in the Khasi Hills, where the number of unconverted school children considerably exceeds the number of those who are Christians. The inspecting staff maintained by Government consists of two sub-inspectors. Instruction is given in the Khasi language and the text-books are printed in that tongue, but in the English character, as Khasi does not possess any character of its own. At the present day (1905) no less than six Khasis have taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

Vital statistics are recorded in various scattered areas which in 1901 had a population of 47,294.* In 1903, the figures returned show a birth rate of 30 per mille, and a death rate of 18 per mille. The latter figure is obviously too low, but it is probable that the Khasis on the high plateau enjoy a fairly long mean duration of life. Malaria is common in the Bhoi and War country, but is rare amongst the inhabitants of the higher hills. Excessive consumption of betel-nut tends to produce dyspepsia, which is occasionally followed by dysentery, and bowel diseases are not uncommon. Round worm and itch are common, ring worm is rare. Heart disease is unusually common amongst men, and difficult labour due to malformation of the pelvis amongst women. Both of these calamities are probably due to the practice which prevails amongst both sexes of carrying heavy loads, from a very early age. Cholera does not often appear in the hills, and is regarded by the Khasis with a wholesome terror. In 1879, there was a severe epidemic in the neighbourhood of Shillong. In Maokhar there were 144 deaths, which was equivalent to a death rate of 154 per mille of the population. In the village of Maopat there were 105 deaths, and many other villages in the neighbourhood of Shillong suffered terribly. On the appearance of the disease the villagers in many cases abandoned their homes, leaving the dead unburied and the sick to tend for themselves. **Medical.**

* The areas in question are :—Shillong station and cantonment, Jowai station Nongkrem, a group of 25 villages in the Khyrim State, Nonkhlao, Nongstoin, Maharam, Mylliem group, Marriw, Maoflang, Jirang, Sohiong group, Lait-lyngkot, Nongpoh, Cherra village and station, Shella, Maolong, Borpunji, Sohbar, Ishamati, Bhoi, Nangtalang, Nartiang, Nongbah, Mynso, Shangpung, and Nongjngi.

Dispensaries.

There is a Government hospital at Shillong with accommodation for 13 male and 4 female in-patients, and Government dispensaries at Cherrapunji, Shella, and Nongpoh. Private dispensaries are maintained by the Welsh Calvinistic Mission at Jowai and Laitlyngkot. Statistics showing the expenditure on these dispensaries and the number of cases treated will be found in Tables XV and XVI.

A vaccine depot is maintained at Shillong from which lymph is supplied to other districts in the Province. Five vaccinators under an inspector were employed in the district in 1903-04. The Khasis suffer to a considerable extent from small-pox, but, in spite of this, they do not avail themselves to any marked extent of the opportunities afforded to them. The average number of persons annually vaccinated during each of the five years ending with 1902-03 was only 25 per mille, as compared with 44 per mille in the Province as a whole. This is largely due to the fact that the unconverted Khasis regard small-pox as a powerful god, and, far from trying to avoid the disease, deliberately expose themselves to the risk of infection. This curious belief is carried to such a pitch that, amongst the Syntengs, to be heavily pitted with small-pox is looked upon as adding to the physical beauty of the sufferer.

APPENDIX.

List of Tables.

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TABLE I.

Rainfall.

The number of years for which the average has been calculated is shown in bracket below the name of each station.

Months.	Average rainfall in inches.			
	Shillong (34 years).	Jowai (30 years).	Maoflang (14 years).	Cherrapunji Police Station (28 years).
January	0·49	1·07	0·87	0·74
February	0·81	2·04	0·69	2·16
March	1·85	6·30	1·93	11·08
April	4·29	10·46	4·81	32·24
May	10·06	26·18	11·41	51·53
June	16·46	66·15	32·11	105·12
July	13·48	43·94	30·00	109·49
August	12·79	34·74	21·10	76·50
September	14·75	31·66	19·26	53·25
October	6·23	12·69	8·73	13·97
November	0·98	1·44	0·47	1·49
December	0·25	0·75	0·28	0·23
Total of year ...	82·44	237·42	131·66	457·80

TABLE II.

General statistics of population.

	Shillong Subdivision.		Jowai Subdivision.		Total District.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Population—							
1901	65,250	69,079	31,971	35,950	202,250	97,221	105,029
1891	64,320	69,063	30,286	34,235	197.904	94,606	103,298
1881	...	...	...	...	167,804	79,765	88,039
1872	...	...	...	...	140,356	67,852	72,504
Variation—							
1891—1901	+930	+16	+1,685	+1,715	+4,346	+2,615	+1,731
1881—1891	...	...	...	...	+30,100	+14,841	+15,259
1872—1881	...	...	...	...	+27,448	+11,913	+15,535
1901.							
Religion—							
Hindus	3,725	1,554	58	17	5,354	3,783	1,571
Muhammadans	857	239	21	1	1,118	878	240

Animistics	55,502	61,689	28,652	32,432	178,275	84,154	94,121
Total Christians	5,027	5,554	3,240	3,500	17,321	8,267	9,054
Presbyterians	4,661	5,195	2,935	3,190	15,981	7,596	8,385
Roman Catholics	149	158	153	142	602	302	300
Anglican Communion ...	83	69	56	67	275	139	136
Other religions	139	43	...	...	182	139	43
CIVIL CONDITION—							
Unmarried	36,066	33,599	17,750	15,782	103,197	53,816	49,381
Married	25,673	24,159	12,674	14,031	76,537	38,347	38,190
Widowed	3,511	11,321	1,547	6,137	22,516	5,058	17,458
LITERACY—							
Literate in Khasi ...	4,599	2,521	1,314	771	9,205	5,913	3,292
Literate in English ...	1,491	333	97	36	1,957	1,588	369
Illiterate	58,671	66,288	30,637	35,176	190,772	89,308	101,464
LANGUAGES SPOKEN—							
Khasi	56,462	62,743	423	513	120,141	56,885	63,256
Synteng	582	785	24,394	28,485	54,246	24,976	29,270
Mikir	1,237	1,128	5,514	5,263	13,142	6,751	6,391

TABLE III.

Birth place, race, caste, and occupation.

	Shillong subdivision.		Jowai subdivision.		Total district.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Birth place—							
Born in district	60,439	67,305	31,612	35,620	194,976	92,051	102,925
,, ,, other parts of Province ...	2,101	1,066	329	316	3,812	2,430	1,382
,, ,, Bengal	949	248	10	...	1,207	959	248
,, ,, United Provinces ...	402	91	4	...	497	406	91
,, ,, Nepal	1,045	248	1	...	1,294	1,046	248
,, elsewhere	314	121	15	14	464	329	135

RACE AND CASTE—							
Eurasian	27	21	...	...	48	27	21
European (*a*) ...	72	61	9	6	148	81	67
Garo	3,001	2,767	...	...	5,768	3,001	2,767
Khasi (*b*)	56,462	62,743	423	513	120,141	56,885	63,256
Mikir	1,251	1,137	5,332	5,123	13,843	6,583	6,260
Synteng (*b*)	582	785	24,394	28,485	54,246	24,976	29,270
OCCUPATION—							
Workers	...	...	...	...	121,340	59,923	61,417
Dependents	...	...	...	...	80,910	...	...
TOTAL SUPPORTED—							
Land-holders ..	43,217	48,475	22,799	23,209	137,700	66,016	71,684
Tenants	4,297	4,594	3,362	3,859	16,112	7,659	8,453
General labourers ...	7,800	9,453	1,957	3,860	23,070	9,757	13,313

(*a*) Includes allied races.

(*b*) Figures taken from the language Table as the caste Table does not include the Native Christians.

TABLE

Fire protection and outturn of timber and

Details.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.	1904-05.
Area in square miles under protection.	7	7	7	7	
Area in square miles protected ...	7	7	7	7	
Percentage	100	100	100	100	
Cost ... ... Rs. ...	1,252	1,127	1,152	1,239	
Reserved Forests.					
Area in square miles ...	51	51	51	51	
Outturn (Government and purchasers only).					
Timber c. ft. ...	5,450	6,621	196	700	
Unclassed State Forests.					
Area in square miles ...	100	100	100	100	
Outturn (Government and purchasers only).					
Timber c. ft. ...	36,396	38,650	66,982	16,120	
Fuel c. ft. ...	1,880	14,430	5,616	12,448	
Rubber Rs. ...	658	...	73	1,947	
Forest receipts Rs. ...	3,553	2,432	2,588	10,226	
Forest expenditure Rs. ...	5,182	4,446	4,310	9,754	
Surplus or Deficit ...	−1,629	−2,014	−1,722	+472	

IV.

fuel and value of minor forest produce.

1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.

TABLE V.

Prices of food staples in seers obtainable per rupee at selected marts.

Year	Period	Shillong: Common rice.	Shillong: Salt.	Shillong: Matikalai.	Jowai: Common rice.	Jowai: Salt.
1880	2nd Week of February	$9\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{5}{16}$	...	...	...
	Do. do. of August	$8\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{5}{16}$	$5\frac{5}{16}$	...	...
1890	Do do. of February	8	$6\frac{1}{2}$	13	13	$5\frac{1}{2}$
	Do. do. of August	8	7	12	11	$5\frac{1}{2}$
1900	Do. do. of February	$5\frac{5}{8}$	$7\frac{1}{2}$	9	10	5
	Do. do. of August	$11\frac{1}{2}$	8	10	9	5
1901	Do. do. of February	10	8	10	10	5
	Do. do. of August	$8\frac{3}{8}$	8	10	$8\frac{1}{2}$	5
1902	Do. do. of February	9	8	10	$10\frac{1}{2}$	5
	Do. do. of August	9	8	10	11	5
1903	Do. do. of February	10	8	10	$11\frac{1}{2}$	6
	Do. do. of August	10	8	10	$9\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$
1904	Do. do. of February	10	$8\frac{1}{2}$	12	12	$6\frac{1}{2}$
	Do. do. of August	11	8	$11\frac{3}{8}$	12	$5\frac{1}{4}$
1905	Do. do. of February	$13\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	12	15	$6\frac{1}{2}$
	Do. do. of August					
1906	Do. do. of February					
	Do. do. of August					
1907	Do. do. of February					
	Do. do. of August					
1908	Do. do. of February					
	Do. do. of August					
1909	Do. do of February					
	Do. do. of August					
1910	Do. do. of February					
	Do. do. of August					
1911	Do. do. of February					
	Do. do. of August					
1912	Do. do. of February					
	Do. do. of August					

TABLE

Statistics of criminal and

Heads of crime.	1902. True.	1902. Detected.	1903. Ture.	1903. Detected.	1904. True.	1904. Detected.
SHILLONG SUBDIVISION. *Criminal Justice.* Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly, secs. 143—153, 157, 158 and 159.	1	...	4	2	3	1
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	4	3	...	...	2	2
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder, and culpable homicide, secs. 302—304, 307, 308 and 396.	3	...	3	3	...	...
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon, secs. 324—326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	12	4	11	2	8	8
(v) Serious criminal force, secs. 353, 354, 356 and 357.	1	1	2	1	1	...
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	3	3	3	...	1	1
(vii) Dacoity, secs. 395, 397 and 398	1	1	...	...	1	1
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning or maiming any animal, secs. 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430—433 and 435—440.	3	...	4	...	5	...
(ix) House breaking and serious house trespass, secs. 449—452, 454, 455 and 457—460.	12	4	8	3	5	2
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement, secs. 341—344.	1	...	...	...	1	1
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against the property.	...		1	...	...	...

VI.

civil justice.

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of criminal and

Heads of crime.	1902.		1903.		1904.	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
SHILLONG SUBDIVISION—(*concld.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(xii) Theft, sec. 379—382 ...	47	19	28	13	37	20
(xiii) Receiving stolen property, secs. 411 and 414.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house trespass, secs. 453, 456, 447 and 448.	3	1	1	1	1	1
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	...	...	3	1	4	4
Total ...	91	36	68	26	69	41
JOWAI SUBDIVISION.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly, secs. 143—153, 157, 158 and 159.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity &c.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder, and culpable homicide, ecs. 302—304, 307, 308 and 396.	3	3	2	2	...	...
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon, secs. 324—326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	1	1	2	1	...	...
(v) Serious criminal force, secs. 353, 354, 356 and 357.	...	...	...	...	...	...

VI.

civil justice—(continued).

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of criminal and

Heads of crime.	1902.		1903.		1904.	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
JOWAI SUBDIVISION—(*concld.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	...	...	...	...	1	...
(vii) Dacoity, secs. 395, 397 and 398	...	...	...	...	...	...
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning or maiming any animal, secs. 270, 281, 282, 428, 429 430–433 and 435–440.	...	...	1	...	...	...
(ix) House breaking and serious house trespass, secs. 449–452, 454, 455, and 457—460.	1	1	10	10	...	...
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement, secs. 341–344.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against the property.	...	...	...	...	1	...
(xii) Theft, secs. 379–382 ...	5	3	5	3	4	4
(xiii) Receiving stolen property, secs. 411 and 414.	1	1	...	...	...	...
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house trespass, secs. 453, 456, 447 and 448.	1	...	1	1	...	...
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total .	12	9	21	17	6	4

VI.

civil justice—(continued).

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of criminal and

Heads of crime.	1902. True.	1902. Detected.	1903. True.	1903. Detected.	1904. True.	1904. Detected.
DISTRICT TOTAL						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly, secs. 143–153, 157, 158 and 159.	1	...	4	2	3	1
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	4	3	...	...	2	2
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder, and culpable homicide, secs. 302—304, 307, 308 and 396.	6	3	5	5	...	...
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon, secs. 324—326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	13	5	13	3	8	8
(v) Serious criminal force, secs. 353, 354, 356 and 357.	1	1	2	1	1	...
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	3	3	3	...	2	1
(vii) Dacoity, secs. 395, 397 and 398.	1	1	...	...	1	1
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning or maiming any animal, secs. 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430—433 and 435—440.	3	...	5	...	5	..
(ix) House breaking and serious house trespass, secs. 449–452, 454, 455 and 457—460.	13	5	18	13	5	2
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement, secs. 341—344.	1	...	...	...	1	1

VI.

civil justice—(continued).

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of criminal and

Heads of crime.	1902. True.	1902. Detected.	1903. True.	1903. Detected.	1904. True.	1904. Detected.
DISTRICT TOTAL—(*concld.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against property.	...	...	1	...	1	...
(xii) Theft, secs. 379—382 ..	52	22	33	16	41	24
(xiii) Receiving stolen property, secs. 411 and 414.	1	1	...	...	...	...
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house trespass, secs. 453, 456, 447 and 448.	4	1	2	2	1	1
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	...	...	3	1	4	4
Total ...	103	45	89	43	75	45
Civil Justice.						
Suits for money and movables ...	136		90		134	
Title and other suits	4		4		13	
Rent suits	1		...		...	
Total ...	141		94		147	

VI.

civil justice—(concluded).

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Finance.

Principal heads.	1890-91.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.	1904-05.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Land revenue ...	4,907	8,624	9,352	9,672	9,119	
House tax ...	27,230	26 699	27,891	30,530	28,278	
Lime quarries ...	17,646	15,984	12,705	9,811	11,935	
Judicial stamps ...	3,591	6.467	5,356	4,326	4,703	
Non-judicial stamps ...	1,751	2,201	1,890	1,998	2,321	
Opium	10,766	16,912	17,637	21,684	18,096	
Country spirits ...	5,000	6,222	5,019	5,876	5 029	
Ganja	1,941	700	513	464	550	
Other heads of excise ...	476	240	202	201	106	
Assessed taxes ...	9,658	13,909	12,889	12 600	11,219	
Number of assessees per °/₀₀	1	1	1	1	1	
Forests	1,958	3,553	2,432	2,588	10,226	
Registration ...	227	274	189	192	202	
Total ...	85,151	1,01,785	96,075	99,942	1,01,784	

VII.

—*Receipts.*

1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.

TABLE

Miscellaneous

Particulars.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
SHILLONG SUBDIVISION.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Elephants	3,300	350	...	2,695
Lime quarries	15,984	12,705	9,811	11,895
House tax	5,418	5,484	5,652	5,770
Total revenue ...	26,419	21,233	18,153	23,496
JOWAI SUBDIVISION.				
Elephants	...	...	...	2,650
Fisheries	5,131	4,861	4,579	5,880
House tax	21,281	22,407	24.878	22,508
Total revenue ...	26,637	27,622	29 780	31,346
TOTAL DISTRICT.				
Elephants	3,300	350	...	5,345
Lime quarries	15,984	12,705	9,811	11,935
Fisheries	5,131	4,861	4,579	5,880
House tax	26,699	27,891	30,530	28,278
Other heads	1,942	3,048	3,013	3,404
Total revenue ...	53,056	48,855	47,933	54,842

VIII.

land revenue.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.

TABLE

Ex

Principal heads.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
SHILLONG SUBDIVISION.				
Number of opium shops ...	2	2	2	2
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	3,250	3,900	3,037	2,533
	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.
Opium issued	2 25 0	3 8 0	2 22 0	2 11 0
Duty on opium sold Rs. ...	2,993	3,648	2,907	2,593
Number of ganja shops ...	1	1	1	1
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	484	333	320	370
	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.
Amount of ganja issued ...	0 24 0	0 20 0	0 16 0	0 20 0
Duty on ganja sold Rs. ...	216	180	144	180
Number of country spirit shops ..	3	3	3	3
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	6,222	5,019	5,876	5,029
Other heads of excise revenue Rs.	240	202	201	106
JOWAI SUBDIVISION.				
Number of opium shops ...	4	3	3	3
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	2,138	1,938	3,000	1,000
	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.
Opium issued	7 19 5	7 6 0	11 7 0	10 20 0
Duty on opium sold Rs. ...	8,531	8,151	12,740	11,970
Number of ganja shops ...	...	...	...	...
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	...	...	...	...
Amount of ganja issued Mds. ...	...	...	...	...

IX

cise.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.
M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.
M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch	M. s. ch	M. s. ch.

TABLE

Ex

Principal heads.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
JOWAI SUBDIVISION—(*concluded*).				
Duty on ganja sold ... Rs. ...	...	...	...	...
Number of country spirit shops...	...	...	...	...
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	...	...	...	...
Other heads of excise revenue Rs.	...	...	...	...
TOTAL DISTRICT.				
Number of opium shops ...	6	5	5	5
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	5,388	5,838	6,037	3,533
	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s ch.
Opium issued	10 4 5	10 14 0	13 29 0	12 31 0
Duty on opium sold Rs. ...	11,524	11,799	15,647	14,563
Number of ganja shops ...	1	1	1	1
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	484	333	320	370
	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.
Amount of ganja issued ...	0 24 0	0 20 0	0 16 0	0 20 0
Duty on ganja sold Rs. ...	216	180	144	180
Number of country spirit shops...	3	3	3	3
Amount paid for licenses Rs. ...	6,222	5,019	5,876	5,029
Other heads of excise revenue Rs.	240	202	201	106

IX.

cise—(concluded).

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s ch.
M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.

TABLE X.

Municipal.

Shillong Station.

Sources of income.	Income. 1890-91.	Income. 1900-01.	Heads of expenditure.	Expenditure. 1890-91.	Expenditure. 1900-01.
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
Opening balance ...	254	1,215	Administration ...	1,169	2,857
Tax on houses and lands.	4,687	8,949	Conservancy ..	4,878	11,196
			Public Works ...	724	5,998
Pounds	413	193	Public instruction	200	660
Fees from markets...	600	505	Water-supply ...	988	17,134
Grants from Government and Local funds.	600	22,500	Other heads ...	2,401	3.214
			Closing balance ...	275	668
Water rate ..	2,033	3,912	Total ...	10,635	41,727
Conservancy ..	1,111	2,712			
Other sources ...	937	1,741			
Total ...	10,635	41,727			

TABLE XI.

Strength of police force.

Particulars.	1881.	1891	1901.
CIVIL POLICE.			
SUPERVISING STAFF.			
Inspector	1	1	1
SUBORDINATE STAFF.			
Sub-Inspectors	4	4	7
Head Constables...	13	14	14
Constables	146	159	183
Union and Municipal Police	7	.	...
Total expenditure ... ... Rs.	29,769	32,121	42,190

Actual strength for 1881 and sanctioned strength for other years.

As the full sanctioned number of Sub-Inspectors was not entertained during the year 1901, only the actual number of Sub-Inspectors and Head Constables is shown for that year.

TABLE XII.

Jail statistics.

Shillong Jail.

		1881.	1891.	1901.
Average daily population	Males	40·58	34·34	29·21
	Females	2·70	0·37	0·58
Rate of jail mortality per %o ...	...	...	230	...
Expenditure on jail maintenance ...	Rs.	7,320	4,848	4,216
Cost per prisoner* (excluding civil prisoners)	Rs.	59	51	70
Profits on jail manufacture	Rs.	1,413	1,441	1,302
Earnings per prisoner (a)	Rs.	33	44	47

* On rations and clothing only.
(a) Calculated on the average number sentenced to labour.

TABLE XIII.

Education.

	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.	1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
SECONDARY SCHOOLS.												
High Schools.												
Number	1	1	1	1								
" of boys reading in High School classes.	65	63	54	51								
" of boys reading in Middle School classes.	24	27	24	33								
" of boys reading in Primary classes.	42	53	71	78								
Middle English Schools.												
Number	4	4	5	5								
" of boys reading in Middle School classes.	63	69	107	105								
" of boys reading in Primary classes.	318	330	443	473								

TABLE XIII.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.												
Upper Primary Schools.												
Number	3	3	2	2								
" of boys reading in Upper Primary classes.	32	39	11	10								
" of boys reading in Lower Primary classes.	3	64	61	55								
Lower Primary Schools.												
Number	292	309	310	321								
" of boys reading in three Upper classes.	(a) 3,809	(a) 3,803	2,351	1,371								
" of boys reading in Lower classes.			1,514	2,690								
FEMALE EDUCATION.												
No. of girls' schools	25	23	23	27								
No. of girls reading (whether in girls' or boys' schools) in :—												
High schools	...	...	...	...								
Middle English schools	2	183	232	249								
Upper Primary schools	201	140	144	135								
Lower Primary schools	1,976	1,877	1,917	2,011								

(*a*) Separate figures not available.

TABLE XIV.

Educational finance.

Particulars.	No. of institutions.	Expenditure on institutions maintained or aided by public funds in 1900-01 from					Expenditure per head of scholar.
		Provincial revenues.	District and Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
Training and special schools ...	1	4,241	...	...	...	4,241	212 0 9
Secondary boys' schools :—							
Upper (High)	1	1,241	...	2,784	...	4,025	30 11 7
Lower (Middle)	4	...	360	657	5,582	6,599	17 5 2
Primary boys' schools :—							
Upper	3	122	...	22	1,260	1,404	30 8 4
Lower	292	4,956	...	13	44,603	49,572	9 4 8
Girls' schools	24	783	180	320	3,603	4,886	7 0 5
Total ...	325	11,343	540	3,796	55,048	70,727	10 11 3

TABLE XV.

Medical.

	1881.	1891.	1901.
Number of dispensaries ...	(*a*) 3	4	(*c*) 5
Daily average number of in-door patients.	7·27	8·38	10·32
" " " out-door "	33·32	84·15	128·28
Cases treated	2,977	16,676	25,684
Operations performed	95	692	316
Total income Rs. ...	3,626	11,748	9,008
Income from Government Rs. ...	1,714	2,517	4,894
Income from Local and Municipal funds Rs. ...	...	(*b*) 5,767	270
Subscriptions Rs. ...	1,194	2,877	2,146
Total expenditure Rs. ...	3,573	11,740	8,997
Expenditure on establishment Rs. ...	1,294	3,215	4,196
Ratio per mille of persons vaccinated...	(*d*) 9·43	15·83	21·46
Cost per successful case Rs. ...	Not available.	0 3 10¼	0 6 2

(*a*) One of them was open for eight months only.
(*b*) Rs. 5,617 paid from Welsh Mission Fund.
(*c*) Returns were not received from one of these dispensaries. Excludes the private dispensary at Jowai from which also no returns were received.
(*d*) Figure for 1881-82.

XVI.

saries.

1906.		1907.		1908		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.
Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	

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GARO HILLS DISTRICT.

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CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

Area and boundaries—General appearance of district—Mountain system—River system—Lakes and marshes—Geology—Economic geology—Climate and rainfall—Tornadoes—Earthquakes—Fauna.

Area and boundaries. The district of the Garo Hills is bounded on the north and west by the district of Goalpara, on the south by the Bengal district of Mymensingh, and on the east by the district of the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. It lies between 25°9′ and 26°1′ N, and 89°49′ and 91°2′ E. and covers an area of 3,140 square miles.

General appearance of district. Almost the whole of the district consists of hilly country, though here and there along the frontier there are stretches of flat land and valleys which run up between the hills. The largest blocks of flat land are to be found at the point where the Bogai debouches on the plain, near Mahendraganj on the southern frontier of the district, and near the Rajabala and Phulbari *hats* on the western frontier.

Mountain system. The main range, on a spur of which the station of Tura has been built, runs through the district from north-west to south-east. Nokrek (4,652 feet), the highest peak in the range, is situated about eight miles to the south-east of Tura, and from this point the hills gradually decline in height. Kailas, east of the Someswari, is 3,375 feet above the level of the sea, and Balpakuram, on the border of the Khasi Hills, 2,831 feet. About five miles north of the Tura range, there is a much

shorter chain of hills, known as the Arbela range, whose highest peak is about 3,277 feet above sea level. The rest of the district consists of a tumbled mass of hills, whose general tendency is to run north and south. Several of the peaks are between 1,500 and 2,000 feet in height, but the general level is considerably less than this. In their original state the whole of these hills must have been covered with dense tropical forest, and much of this forest still remains. Where, however, the hillsides have been cleared for cultivation, bamboos and high reed jungle cover the sites of the fallowing *jhums*. The sides of the hills are usually fairly steep but not precipitous, but an exception should, perhaps, be made in the case of the Tura and Arbela ranges. Here, though there are few rocks or precipices to be seen, the ascent to the summit except by one of the recognised paths would be by no means easy even for a man on foot. The hills, as a rule, take the form of ridges sloping steeply to the valleys with which they are intersected, but any boldness of outline which they may possess is effectually concealed by the luxuriance of the vegetation in which they are enshrouded. The Kailas hill, which is called Chitmang by the Garos, stands out an abrupt hog-backed mass, which towers above most of the hills in the vicinity. It thus appears to be higher than it really is, and it is probably on this account that it is regarded by the Garos as the home of the spirits of the dead.

River system. The Krishnai. The district contains no river navigable by boats of four tons burthen throughout the year, and only

five which can be said to be navigable at all in their course within the hills, *viz.*, the Krishnai, Kalu, Bhugai, Nitai, and Someswari. The Krishnai, which is called Damring by the Garos, takes its rise in the hills to the north of the Arbela range, near the village of Mandalanggiri, whence it flows in a northerly direction past the villages of Rongrengiri, Thapa, and Songma to Jira, a frontier village, where it leaves the district and enters Goalpara. This river is navigable by canoes in the cold season as far as Rongrengiri, but there is very little traffic. During the earthquake of 1897, the greater part of the bed of the Krishnai between Dekachang and Jira sank and formed a lake about eight miles long and in places nearly a mile in width. The river enters this lake near Dekachang.

The Kalu.

The Kalu is known to the Garos as the Ganol. It takes its rise at Domagitok on the northern face of the Tura range about nine miles from Tura station. It leaves the district near Putimari and flows for about ten miles through Goalpara. It again appears near the Rangapani hill, and for about two miles forms the boundary of the district from the village Rangapani to Peshkar Bhita. It then falls into the Jinjiram, near Kakripara in the Goalpara district. Its principal tributary is the Rongkon, which rises near Tura station. The Kalu flows past the villages of Maheshgiri, Durangiri, Damalgiri, and Garobahda. It is navigable for a distance of ten miles in the hills from Harigao as far as Damalgiri, which is within twelve miles of Tura, by boats of two

tons burden, but only during the rainy season. Snags in the river bed make navigation difficult.

The Bhugai. The Bhugai is known to the Garos as the Bugi. It takes its rise on the south face of the Tura range near Nokrek, about 8 miles in a direct line from Tura. It passes the Dalu *hat* and falls into the old bed of the Brahmaputra above the station of Nasirabad in Mymensingh.

The Nitai. The Nitai is known to the Garos as the Dareng and takes its rise on the southern slopes of the Tura watershed. It passes the villages of Adapgiri, Chakpatgiri, Sembu, Chota Sembu, Silkigiri and Bamongiri, and at Ghoshgaon enters the district of Mymensingh, where it falls into the Kanks river. Canoes can proceed as far as Chakpatgiri when the river is full of water.

The Someswari. The Someswari, or, as it is called by the Garos, the Simsang, is the largest stream in the district. It takes its rise on Nokrek, and drains the country between the Tura and Arbela ranges and the valley of the Rongdi. The river follows a very winding course and at first flows in an easterly direction for about thirty miles. It then takes a turn to the south and runs generally in a southerly direction, till it emerges on the plains in pargana Susang of Mymensingh. It is navigable for fair sized boats as far as Siju, about twenty miles from the point where it issues from the hills. Beyond this point dug-out canoes can occasionally be used as far as Rongkaibibra, the point of junction of the Someswari and the Rongkai river. The upper reaches of the river can hardly be described as

navigable, as the rapids are long and dangerous. The principal tributaries are the Rongkai, the Rongdi, and the Chibok.

The banks of the rivers in the hills are usually steep, and in some places they flow through deep ravines. The bed is rocky, and the scenery generally wild and beautiful. The Maheshkhali river, which forms a part of the eastern boundary of the district, flows a subterranean course for many miles under the limestone rocks which form its bed. It disappears not far from the Yindka peak, and reappears again near Billar Dhoba.

Lakes and marshes.

The only lake in the district is the one to which reference has been already made, and which has been formed by the subsidence of the valley of the Krishnai. The lake was originally the site of a dense forest, but in places it is now as much as twelve feet deep. The only other *bils* of any importance are the Bara *bil* in the Kalumalupara pargana, and the Katta *bil* between Kalaichar and Mahendraganj.

Geology.

The greater part of the Garo Hills are formed of gneissic rocks. Upon them are superimposed strata referable to the cretaceous system, which consist of sandstones and conglomerates with subordinate clays and occasional coal seams. The cretaceous beds are overlaid by rocks of nummulitic age, consisting of limestone and sandstone with interstratified shales. Above the nummulitics there are upper tertiary rocks, composed mainly of sandstones, which form low hills along the border of

the Mymensingh district. Marine fossils have been met with in the lower beds of these sandstones.*

Near Siju, on the Someswari, there is a large cave called by the Garos Dobakkol or the cave of bats, as it is haunted by thousands of these creatures. The entrance is small but it leads into a large chamber hung with stalactites, which stretches away gradually decreasing in size into the hill. The Garos have a tradition that there is an exit near Tura, but the cave has never been properly explored.

Economic geology.

So far as has been at present ascertained all the coal of these hills is of cretaceous origin. There are outcrops along the southern edge of the Tura range, but the principal coalfield is situated in the valley of the Someswari near Daranggiri. This field is described by Mr. Tom De La Touche in the Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. XV, Part III. It is situated on both sides of the Someswari river, where it turns south in a long reach, before cutting through the main range near Jankaray village. The field is about ten miles in length from west to east extending from a little to the west of Daranggiri to Rongdim in the Khasi Hills, and about six miles from north to south from the Rongdi

* I am indebted to Mr. Bose for this brief account of the geology of the Garo Hills. The following works on the subject may be consulted. Records of the Geological Survey of India, 1868, Part I. This contains a somewhat incomplete account of the coal of the Garo Hills, but the district at that time had been neither pacified nor properly explored. Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. VII, Part I, 1869. This contains a good account of the Shillong plateau and incidentally of the Garo Hills. Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol, VII, Part II, which contains an account of the coalfields of the district, and a note on its general geology. Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol, XV, Part III, which contains an account of the Daranggiri field; and Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. XX, Part I, 1887, which contains a note on the general geology of the Garo Hills.

stream to the Rongkai. The coal measures cover an area of about fifty square miles, but the only area in which they could be profitably worked is a tract, about twenty square miles in area, between Daranggiri and the Rengchi stream. Near Daranggiri village there is a seam exposed which is seven feet thick. Mr. De La Touche calculates that the total quantity of coal in the field must be about seventy-six million tons. This estimate is, however, framed upon very imperfect data, and it would be unsafe to act upon it without further verification. The coal varies very much in quality. Certain samples yielded as much as 52 and 48 per cent of fixed carbon, while other pieces taken from the portion of the field which Mr. De La Touche condemned as quite unfit for paying operations, had only 14 and 4 per cent of fixed carbon. Mr. De La Touche has recorded the following observations on the facilities for working the principal seam.*

"Except in the south-west corner of the field, where the strata are bent up sharply against the gneiss of the main range, they are either horizontal or dip at very low angles, and there seems to be an absolute freedom from faults over the whole area. The greater part of the seam is above the level of the principal stream, so that the coal might be economically extracted, and the mines drained by adits. Moreover, as the rock immediately above the coal is generally a fine clay rock, tolerably impervious to water, the mines would to a certain extent be kept dry by it. That part of the seam which dips below the surface of the rivers would have to be got at by shafts, but the strata above the coal, consisting of about 300 feet of standstone and shales, would present no difficulty to the sinking of these."

* Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. XV, Part III, page 178

On June 12th, 1897, the district did not escape so lightly. Fortunately, owing to the time at which the shock occured, *i.e.*, about 5 P.M. on a Saturday afternoon, and to the fact that there were no masonry buildings in the district, the loss of life was comparatively small, and the total death roll only amounted to twenty-seven. The public offices and the residences of the officials were rendered uninhabitable, the posts supporting them were wrenched loose, the floors buckled, and the roofs sagged. The damage done to the treasury is thus described by the Deputy Commissioner :*

"This building stood on a gentle slope, a few feet from the top of a steep hill side. It had a strong frame of timber, walls and roof of corrugated iron, and a massive plinth of cement and large stones. The plinth was 70 feet long, and 32 feet 6 inches wide, with a maximum and minimum height of 8 feet and 1 foot 6 inches respectively. The floor was of concrete and cement to a depth of 9 inches. Solid as it was, it crumbled away like a pile of sand before the first shock had stopped. The stones rolled out on all sides ,and the floor was broken into little pieces. The whole building tilted over towards the *khud*, wrenching the main posts in every direction, and uprooting or breaking the smaller ones which supported the verandah."

The houses owned by the American Baptist Mission escaped, however, with comparative immunity. The reason, was, perhaps, to be found in the fact that the posts instead of being driven deep into the ground, rested, for the most part, on stones almost flush with the earth, while some of the walls were protected with stout planks, a fact which must undoubtedly have added to their capacity for resistance. There were serious landslips in the hills, and much damage was done to

* Letter No. 100 G., dated 24th July, 1897.

roads and bridges. In the plains, culturable land was damaged by sand, but, as a set-off against this, *bils* were silted up and rendered fit for cultivation. The attitude of the Garos towards the earthquake is thus described by the Deputy Commissioner :—

"The Garos generally were thrown into a state of stolid bewilderment by the earthquake. They left their fields, and retired into their village houses to await further catastrophes. The Garo belief is that the world is a square flat body, hung up by a string at each corner. There is a squirrel always trying to gnaw these strings, but to prevent it a demon was appointed. This demon, however, neglected his duty, and in order that his attention might not in the future be diverted from his work, he was struck blind. Now that he can't see, the squirrel, of course, has the best ot it, and it is feared that when one or two of the strings are gnawed, tne earth will be turned upside down. Another story is that Her Most Gracious Majesty, not content with the last earthquake, has ordered another and more vigorous one to be followed by a cyclone. That it is in the power of the Maharani to do so is never doubted. One man asked for a *parwana* to forbid the hill behind his house from slipping down on to him. Had the houses of the European officials in Tura not been wrecked, the Garos would have made up their minds without doubt that the recent catastrophe was the work of the Sahebs, and excited by the wild stories in common circulation they might have given some trouble."

Fauna.

The larger kinds of game are common in the hills, the list including elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, wild pig, and deer, of which the principal varieties are the sambar (*cervus unicolor*) and the barking deer (*cervulus muntjac*). The swamp deer (*cervus duvauceli*) is also found in the low country at the foot of the hills.

The serow (*nemorhaedus*) is sometimes seen, and wild dogs are occasionally met with. Wild buffalo are found in the valleys of the Bhugai, Nitai, and Someswari, and mithun (*bos gaurus*) are fairly common on the main

range and far down the slopes on either side. Small game include peafowl, wild duck of various kinds, snipe, partridges, pheasants, and jungle fowl. Wild elephants are much feared by the Garos, as they often injure the crops and occasionally cause loss of life. In 1904, 8 persons were killed by wild elephants, 5 by tigers, 2 by bears, and 2 by wild pigs. If the returns can be relied upon it would appear that the number of deaths due to wild animals has decreased considerably since our occupation of the country, as in the two years 1883 and 1884 it is said that 70 persons were killed by tigers alone. Rewards were paid for the destruction of 1 wild elephant, 12 tigers, 38 leopards, and 54 bears in 1904. Between 1877-78, and 1902-03, elephants were hunted on no less than 20 occasions by the Government Khedda Department, and about 190 animals were annually captured. In 1886-87, over 300 animals were caught, no less than 136 having been impounded in a single drive. Since the withdrawal of the Department from Assam, the right of hunting in the different mahals, of which there are altogether five, has been put up to auction when it has seemed expedient.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Early legends of Garos—Oppression by the Goalpara zamindars—Enquiry by Mr. Scott into Garo raids—The Paghul riots—Garo raids and expeditions—Posting of officer at Tura—Survey of hills in 1870—Murder of a coolie in 1871, and punitive measures—Subsequent history uneventful.

Early legends of Garos.

The history of the district cannot be disassociated from the history of the tribe, who form the immense mass of the inhabitants, and have given their name to the hills in which they live. The Garos are believed to be members of the great Bodo family, who are said to have entered Assam from the North-East, and to have spread in successive waves, not only over the valley of the Brahmaputra, but even beyond it to the hills of Tippera. According to their own traditions, the Garos came originally from Thibet and settled in Kuch Bihar. From there they were driven to the neighbourhood of Jogighopa, but they were again compelled to fly towards the south by the king of the country, and his ally the Raja of Kuch Bihar. Their next wanderings were towards Gauhati, where they were enslaved by the Assamese, but released by a Khasi prince, who settled them in the neighbourhood of Boko. The place was, however, infested by tiger-men, and the Garos then moved into the Habraghat pargana, whence they finally wandered into the hills in which they now are found.

Garos oppressed by Goalpara Zamindars.

The story of the dealings of the Bengal zamindars and of Government with the Garos will be found in the pages of Mackenzie's "North-East Frontier of Bengal," (pages 245-268) and need only be briefly summarised below. In the days of Mughal rule the country lying between the Brahmaputra and the Garo Hills was occupied by powerful zamindars, who only paid a nominal tribute to the Imperial Government and enjoyed a position of semi-independence. The border chiefs with whom the Garos were principally brought in contact were those of Karaibari, Kalumalupara, Habraghat, and Mechpara. One of their duties was to protect the plains from the aggressions of the hillmen, but their principal object was to enrich themselves with trade, cotton being a valuable article of export from the hills.

Mechpara and Karaibari zamindars subdue outer hills.

In 1775-76, the zamindars of Mechpara and Karaibari entered the hills to avenge some Garo raids of more than usual atrocity. They remained for some years in the hills and brought a considerable tract of land under their control. The principal chief of the southern hills at that time was a man called Renghta, and even he became subject to the Karaibari zamindar. This zamindar was an individual of much force of character, who tried to obtain for himself a position of absolute independence. He declined to pay his revenue, opposed all attempts to determine the boundaries of his zamindari, and it was not till 1815 that he was finally arrested.

Enquiry by Mr. Scott into Garo raids.

The lawlessness of the zamindars in the plains was naturally enough reflected in the hills, and, in 1816, Mr. Scott, afterwards Agent to the Governor-General on

the North-East Frontier, was deputed to enquire into the matter. It could hardly be denied that action of some kind was called for, as during the ten years ending with 1816, 157 villages had been burnt by Garo raiders and 178 persons killed. The condition of affairs is thus summarised in his report—

1. Karaibari.—The chaudhury of this estate having been the most vigorous and least under control had reduced nearly all the Garos actually living on his estate to the condition of ordinary ryots, but a few of the frontier chiefs still remain merely tributary, subject to the provision of cotton on terms highly favourable to the zamindar, and paying sums of money on the occasions of Hindu festivals. Of these the chief was Renghta, who had been prevented as before shown from emancipating himself from the chaudhury's supremacy.

2. Kalumalupara had been in feeble hands. The Garos on its borders were virtually independent, though some paid a nominal cotton tribute.

3. The Mechpara chaudhury had in 1776-77 effected large conquests, but was succeeded soon after by a minor, and now only a few outlying Garo villages in the plains remained in the condition of ordinary ryots' villages, and in these the Regulations of Government were current. But in the hill tracts the Garo chiefs were merely tributary, paying cotton on terms favourable to the zamindar and occasionally admitting him as their criminal judge.

4. Habraghat.—Here the Garos on the first ranges of hills had been reduced to unconditional submission, but had been liberally treated and their Sardars transformed into Jagirdars, charged with the defence of the passes against the tribes of the interior. They were quite under the Regulation of Government.

As a result of this enquiry it was decided to completely remove the Garos from the control of the zamindars, to prohibit the levying of the illegal dues which had been the cause of so much friction, and to place the frontier markets under the direct management of Government. Mr. Scott entered into relations with 121 Garo chiefs,

living west of the Someswari, and as long as he was able to give the matter his personal attention, the peace of the frontier seems to have been undisturbed.

The tribe at this time was divided into the following three sections: the Garos settled in the plains who did not differ materially from ordinary raiyats, the Garos in the outer ranges who had to some extent been subdued and were assessed to tribute, and the independent or *bemulwa* Garos who occupied the higher hills in the interior.

The Paghul riots, 1825.

In 1825, there was some trouble near Sherpur on the borders of Mymensingh, in which the Garos inhabiting the lower ranges were implicated. At the end of the eighteenth century, a Muhammadan Fakir had settled here and had attracted a small following, called in derision by their neighbours *paghuls* or fools. In 1813, he died and was succeeded by his son Tippu, who, with his mother, laid claim to miraculous powers. The villagers, many of whom were Garos, were much oppressed by the zamindars. In 1825, a body of 700 men assembled to attack their landlords at Sherpur, and serious rioting took place. The *paghuls* were ultimately subdued, the country they inhabited was held to be outside the borders of the permanently settled estates, and the agrarian grievance was removed. In 1833, the *paghuls* again attempted to stir up a peasant rising, but it came to nothing.

Unrest on frontier.

About this time there was a certain amount of unrest upon the frontier. On enquiry being made it was found that it was largely due to the oppressive conduct of the

officials at the Garo markets. An expedition was sent up into the hills in 1837 under a Mr. Strong. The arrears of tribute were realized without difficulty, many of the Garo villages tendered their submission, and all this was effected without any loss of life on either side.

Occasional murders still took place, and in 1848 it was found necessary to send an expedition to subdue the Dassanni Garos, who had murdered one of their headmen with all his family for the somewhat inadequâte reason that he had requested the tribe to pay tribute which had been in arrears since 1834.

Raids in 1852 and 1857

In 1852, the Goalpara frontier was in a very disturbed condition. Seven raids took place, in which forty-four persons were killed. An expedition was despatched into the hills, which burnt a village, but as the raiders were not surrendered, it was decided to blockade the hillmen. This was attended with a certain measure of success, as they were to a great extent dependent on the profits of the cotton trade, and some of the offenders were given up to justice. For three or four years there was peace upon the frontier, but towards the end of 1856, the hillmen broke out again, and between 1857 and 1859 there were nine raids made into Goalpara, which resulted in the loss of twenty lives.

Two expeditions have no practical results.

Further disturbances occurred along the frontier, the closing of the markets proved ineffectual, and in 1861 an expedition was despatched into the hills. The troops advanced from two sides, from Goalpara and Mymensingh, and succeeded in reaching and punishing most of the offending villages. Arrangements were then made

for the appointment of local headmen who were to be responsible for the arrest and surrender of offenders, but this arrangement did not extend to the hills overlooking Mymensingh. An attempt by the Susang Raja, a zamindar of Mymensingh, to levy rent in the hills led to a murderous raid in 1866, which was punished by an expedition.

Officer posted at Tura in 1867.

Government had by this time come to the conclusion that control from without would never really solve the Garo question. Hitherto it had been thought that it would be quite impossible for a European officer to exist in these malarious hills during the rainy season, but in 1866 it was decided that the experiment should be made, and in the following year Lieutenant Williamson was established on one of the spurs of Tura mountain.

The success which attended this experiment was remarkable. The Garos are naturally a cheerful, kindly race, who, when fairly treated, give no trouble, and between 1867 and 1871 nearly one hundred independent villages tendered their allegiance to the British Government.

Survey of Hills in 1870.

In 1870, when the survey of the Khasi Hills had nearly been completed, the survey party found itself at the north-east border of the Garo Hills, and it was decided to carry out a survey of that portion of the Garo territory which acknowledged British rule. The Deputy Commissioner, Captain Williamson, joined Major Austin, who was in charge of the survey party, and the two officers marched across the hills from Susang to Damra, and were thus the first Europeans to traverse the hills from Mymen-

singh to Goalpara. The only village to offer any opposition was Bangangiri, and this was overcome by the exercise of a little tact. The villagers dropped their hostile attitude, received the party, and finally tendered their submission and agreed to pay revenue to the British Government. Their example was then followed by many other independent villages.

Murder of a coolie in 1871.

In the following season work was again resumed till it was stopped by an unfortunate incident which occurred in March, 1871. It was necessary for the purposes of the survey to clear a station on the summit of the Mimanram mountain. Two coolies who, it is said, were unable to speak the Garo language, were deputed to collect labour from the villages of Pharamgiri and Rangmagiri which are situated near Mimanram. When they arrived at Rangmagiri they found a feast in progress, and were offered some liquor by the revellers. What happened then it is difficult to say, but it is obvious that a dispute can easily arise when one of the parties to it is half drunk, and neither side can properly understand the language of the other. The Garos threw themselves on the two coolies and attempted to make them prisoners. In the course of the struggle one of them succeeded in escaping, the other was murdered, and his head kept as a trophy.

Punitive measures.

The season was so far advanced that punitive measures were postponed till the following cold weather. The villages were visited by Captain La Touche, the officiating Deputy Commissioner, and as he was unable to arrest the murderers, a party of police was left

at Pharamgiri. In May, 1872, two of the men who were most responsible were brought in, and shortly afterwards an attack was made on the protected village of Damakchigiri by the independent villages of Kokwagiri and Bawigiri. An attack was also made on the outpost stationed at Pharamgiri. The Deputy Commissioner proceeded to this village, and occupied the villages of Kokwagiri and Bawigiri without difficulty, but Government had by this time come to the conclusion that it was no longer desirable to tolerate any so-called independent villages in the hills. The reasons which led the Lieutenant-Governor to submit proposals for their subjugation, and the steps taken to give effect to them, are thus summarised in the Bengal Report for 1872-73:

In consequence of outrages committed on our dependent villages by communities of independent Garos, the Lieutenant-Governor drew the attention of the Government of India to the absolute necessity which existed for thoroughly reclaiming that part of the Garo Hills which was still independent of control. It was stated that since the policy of direct management of the hill communities has been introduced in 1866, village after village had submitted to the jurisdiction of the Deputy Commissoner in charge, voluntarily enrolling themselves as British subjects, and proving the genuineness of their action by regular payment of the trifling dues imposed on them. It was shown that a considerable portion of the hills had been thus brought within the pale of regular government. It was explained that the Lieutenant-Governor would have been quite content to wait for the gradual submission of the remaining independent Garos had they on their part been content to live at peace with their neighbours now under our protection; but they had chosen to commence active hostilities by raiding on dependent villages. and frequently gave protection to criminals who had offended against our laws. Conduct like this threatened disturbance, not only to the peace of the Garo district, but danger to the plains of Goalpara and Mymensingh, in which on more than

one recent occasion the Garo raids had caused considerable panic. The Lieutenant-Governor proposed, therefore, to put an end to the independence of the savages inhabiting this nook in the midst of British territory, bringing them under the direct control of the Deputy Commissioner, and opening paths through the centre of the hills along which our police would patrol.

The Lieutenant-Governor's proposals met with the approval of His Excellency the Governor-General in Council, and the necessary preparations for an expedition were at once taken in hand. The Lieutenant-Governor, after consulting with Colonel Haughton, the Commissioner, considered it expedient to allow no possible chance of miscarriage in such an enterprise; and provided for the collection of at least 500 armed police, supported on the side of the Khasi Hills by three companies of regular troops. It was also decided not to commence active operations till the middle of November, by which time it was hoped the country would become tolerably healthy for men from the plains.

The expeditionary force was divided into three columns. One column, under Captain Davis, entered the Hills from the Goalpara district on the north by the Nibari Duar; a second, under Mr. Daly, entered from the Mymensingh district, on the south; the third or main column, under Captain Williamson, the Deputy Commissioner, marched from Tura, the headquarters of the Garo Hills district. It was arranged that each column should follow a prescribed route through the independent tract, visiting and enforcing the submission of all villages on its way; and it was hoped that all would meet at a central rendezvous at about the same time Lieutenant R. G. Woodthorpe, R. E., Assistant Superintendent of Survey, was deputed to conduct survey operations in communication with Captain Williamson.

The expedition was singularly successful. Captain Williamson occupied without opposition Dilmagiri, the leading independent village, which had been concerned in the recent raids, and received the submission of all the hamlets in the neighbourhood. Mr. Daly joined him on the 14th December, after repulsing, without loss of men on his side, an attack which the Garos made on his camp.* He, too, had received tenders of submission from most of the villages on his route. Establishing themselves at Rongrengiri, Captain Williamson and Mr. Daly, while waiting

* This was at Rongrengiri. The Garos were repulsed with some loss and after this one attack made no attempt anywhere to oppose the progress of the police.

for the arrival of the Northern column under Captain Davis, visited all the Garo villages within reach, and after receiving their offers of submission, arranged for the payment of the usual small house-tax, occassionally inflicting and realising fines where opposition had been offered or orders disobeyed, and insisting on the surrender of all skulls kept as trophies of raids.

Captain Davis's column was longer on the road, and did not join the others till the 2nd January. He had, however, visited all the independent villages on both sides of his line of march, and though he had been twice attacked, he had been able to repulse the Garos and punish the offending communities without much difficulty.

During January the remaining independent villages were visited, and submitted. The Garos, convinced apparently that resistance was hopeless, accepted the terms offered them by Captain Williamson, and, have under his directions, been engaged in opening out paths across the hills in several directions, which they will be required hereafter to maintain. The survey had also completed its duty and filled up the blank which has hitherto disfigured the maps.

Subsequent history uneventful.

The subsequent history of the district is one of quiet though not of rapid progress. The Garos are some of the most peaceful of the hillmen in Assam, and quickly settled down under a rule which was both considerate and light. Such disturbances as have occurred were of a very trifling character. In 1882, eighteen villages near Randupara, who had been requisitioned for labour required for the construction of a road from Tura to Bangalkhata, refused to obey the orders of the Deputy Commissioner. Not content with staying away themselves they threatened with vengeance any village that turned out to work, and thus effectually put a stop to the operations. The Deputy Commissioner visited the place with a guard of 100 police, and, though several hundred Garos are said to have assembled with the

intention of opposing his advance, they dispersed on learning that he had gone by another route. Most of the villages visited were found quite empty, and, as the people declined to come in and deliver up their arms, two of the hamlets were burned. This step was followed by a complete surrender, and no further trouble was experienced.

In December 1902, the native Magistrate in charge of the Goalpara subdivision reported that a large number of Garos had assembled at the Dalgoma steamer-ghat with the object of establishing Garo rule. The Deputy Commissioner of Goalpara immediately proceeded to the spot with a strong body of police, but the Garos did not attempt to offer any resistance. It appeared that they had been misled by some designing men, who had collected large sums of money with the ostensible object of establishing some wholly shadowy and unsubstantial claims to the possession of the Habraghat pargana. Notices had been posted up warning the villagers not to pay rent to the Bijni zamindars, but on the arrest of the ringleaders, the crowd dispersed without more ado.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION.

Area and density—Villages—Tura—Growth of population—Immigration—Sex and civil condition—Infirmities—Language—Tribes—Religions—Occupations.

Area and density. The total area of the district is 3,140 square miles, the population in 1901 was 138,274, and the density was thus 44 to the square mile.

Villages—Tura. In 1901, the Garo Hills contained 1,026 villages including the small headquarters station of Tura. Tura is situated in 25°31′ N. and 90°14′ E., on a small plateau near the base of Tura hill. It is only 1,300 feet above the level of the sea, and immediately behind it Tura hill rises to an elevation of over 4,000 feet, its almost precipitous slopes clad in dense tropical forest. There are three small bungalows on the summit of this hill owned by Government and the missionaries, and the temperature there is generally about ten degrees lower than it is in the station below. Except on this side Tura is surrounded by low rolling hills, gradually declining in height till they reach the plains some twenty to twenty-five miles away. The station contains the bungalows of the few resident officials and of the missionaries, a small jail, the public offices, the lines of the military police, a market place, and a few shops, but it is nothing more than a village, and in 1901 only had a population of 1,375 souls. The place

is pretty enough, and on a clear day a magnificent view can be obtained from the station itself, and a still finer one from the summit of the hill under which it lies. But it is small, isolated, and is generally thought to be unhealthy. Attempts have recently been made to improve the sanitary conditions by cutting the jungle in the neighbourhood. A supply of excellent water is obtained from a hill stream which is distributed over the station by an aqueduct.

The Garo villages are generally built on the side of the hills, and are unfortified. They consist, in fact, of small hamlets, containing but a few houses, and in no district in the Province are the villages so small.

Growth of the population. The abstract in the margin shows the population recorded at each census and the percentage variation.

	Population.	Percentage variation.
1872	100,780	
1881	109 548	+ 8·7
1891	121,570	+ 10·9
1901	138,274	+ 13·7

In 1872 and 1881 it was impossible to carry out a regular enumeration in the hills, and only a rough estimate was formed. The district suffered severely from *kala azar* between 1881 and 1891, and it is possible that the earlier estimates were too low. Part of the increase in 1901 was attributed to imperfections in the preceding census in the plains mauzas, and the actual increase in the indigenous population was thought to be about 10 per cent.

Immigration. In 1901, 90 per cent of the population enumerated in the district were natives of the Garo Hills, 6 per cent

had been born in other districts of the Province, and 4 per cent were foreigners who had been born outside Assam. Almost all of the immigrants from other districts in the Province were natives of Goalpara, and had, no doubt, merely moved across the frontier. There is an appreciable movement back from the Garo Hills district into Goalpara, but for every person who moves into Goalpara there are four who go the other way. The bulk of the foreigners come from Rangpur and Mymensingh, two neighbouring districts of Bengal, but there are also a certain number of Nepalese.

Sex and civil condition. In the district as a whole there is a considerable deficiency of women, and in 1901 there were only 974 women to every 1,000 men. The deficiency is entirely due to the immigrant population. Amongst those born and censused in the district the proportion of the sexes was exactly equal, and amongst the Garos the women very slightly exceeded the men in numbers.

The Garos are not exclusive in matters matrimonial, and will intermarry with any person except Jugis or sweepers. Owing to the conditions under which they live, mixed marriages are, however, far from common. The proposal comes from the family of the bride, and though his parents' consent must be, of course, obtained, the wishes of the person most concerned are sometimes not consulted. Amongst the Abengs there is a very curious custom. It is considered good form for the youth selected to run away when asked to marry a girl. This

most uncomplimentary conduct must not be taken to imply that he is in any way averse from the proposal, and cases have been known in which the fugitive has sued his father-in-law elect because he let him go and gave his daughter to another man. The essential portions of the ceremony are an address from the priest and the slaughter of a cock and hen. Divorce is recognized, and widows are allowed to marry, but are expected to do so in their husband's family. Polygamy is permitted, provided that the consent of the first wife is obtained. In 1901, out of 29,000 animistic married women, nearly 2,300 were less than 15 years of age. Inheritance goes through the female, and property frequently passes through the daughter to the son-in-law. Where this is the case he is compelled to marry his mother-in-law, if she is still alive, and a man not unfrequently occupies the position of husband towards mother and daughter at the same time. When a woman dies, the family property passes to her youngest, or occasionally to her eldest, daughter. The husband is, however, allowed to retain possession of the estate if he can succeed in obtaining one of his first wife's family as his second spouse. In spite of the liberal exposure of their persons, the women are chaste and make good and steady wives, and, as far as the orthodox standards of sexual morality are concerned, compare most favourably with the Khasi women, their neighbours on the east, who swathe themselves in a multitude of garments. More detailed information with regard to the marriage customs of the Garos will be found in the monograph on that tribe by Captain Playfair.

Infirmities. From the abstract in the margin it will be seen that the district is below the average for the Province with regard to three out of the four infirmities selected for record at the census.

Out of 10,000 males, number afflicted with—

	Garo Hills.	Assam.	India.
Insanity ...	4	5	3
Deaf-mutism	8	9	6
Blindness ...	14	10	12
Leprosy ...	9	13	5

Blindness, as in all the hill districts, is unusually common, and women suffer from it even more than men. It is possible that the fires which are kept smouldering in a hillman's hut have a prejudicial effect upon the eyesight.

Language. Seventy-seven per cent of the population in 1901 returned Garo as their customary form of speech, 13 per cent Bengali, nearly 5 per cent Rabha, and over 2 per cent Koch, another language belonging, like Garo and Rabha, to the Bodo family. There are at least twelve different dialects of Garo, but many differ so little from the standard Awe that for all practical purposes they can be disregarded. The following are the principal varieties in use : (1) Awe, which is spoken by the inhabitants of the northern and north-eastern hills, north of the central range, as far west as the Jinari river. (2) Abeng, which is spoken in the rest of the north, in the west, and in the south as far east as the Bhugai river. (3) Chibok, which is spoken in the uplands under the central range from the Bhugai almost as far east as the Someswari. (4) Ruga, which is used in the country south of the Chibok area in the lower valley of the Bhugai. (5) Dual, which is spoken in the lower Nitai valley. (6) Atong, which is used in the lower Someswari valley right up to to the borders of the Khasi Hills. Rabha has two dialects

Rangdania and Maitaria, but it is not a language of which much is known. Little also is known of Koch, but such information as exists will be found, with descriptions of Rabha and Garo, in Vol. III, Part II, of the Linguistic Survey of India by Doctor Grierson.

Tribes. Judged by the standard of language, which in this case is more reliable than the caste returns, as many of the native Christians are Garos, 77 per cent of the population of the district are members of the Garo tribe. Other tribes, all of which are members of the great Bodo family to which the Garos belong, are the Rabhas, Haijongs, and Koches, who amounted altogether to nearly 13 per cent of the total population. The manners and customs of the Garos are described at length in the monograph on the tribe which is now under preparation by Captain Playfair, and are referred to incidentally in the following pages.

Haijong. The Haijong language is akin to Bengali, but the tribe, according to their own legends, originally came from the Himalaya. The Haijongs call themselves Hindus, and their houses and style of dress resemble those of the ordinary plainsmen, but they will still eat pig, though they draw the line at fowls, beef, and snakes. They are divided into several endogamous groups, such as the Harong pariya, Bhojṇi pariya, Manik kuriya, Tepar pariya, Sutadal, and Mauji pariya, and at their marriage ceremonies a priest attends and kindles the sacred fire of mango wood. They worship Durga and Kali and perform the *sradh* ceremony.

Males	... 2,720
Females	... 2,538

Koch.

The Koches are divided into three main endogamous divisions, the Dasgaiya, the Harigaiya, and the Anang.

Males	...	2,123
Females	...	2,210

The Dasgaiya Koches eat pig but refuse fowls, the last two subdivisions eat fowls as well as pig, but all refuse beef, snakes, and the flesh of wild animals other than deer. The houses of the Koches are built in the style of the ordinary plainsman's hut, and the men wear the *dhoti* and wrap of the Assam Valley. The women wear a smock reaching from the bust to the knees, with the exception of the Anangs, who wear a petticoat, a shawl over the trunk, and another piece of cloth round the head. The Koches worship Kali and Durga, but have no regular priest. The principal part of the wedding ceremony is a feast, and the Harigaiya and Anang Koches follow the Garo ritual and kill fowls and examine their entrails to see whether the omens are favourable.

Rabhas.

The Rabhas are a section of the Bodo race and appear to be an offshoot of the Garos. Their language is closely akin to Garo, and their original habitat seems to have been the northern slopes of the Garo Hills. Certain sections of the tribe which live on the borders of that district have no word for north and south but describe the former idea by Bhutan, the latter by Tura, a fact which pretty clearly indicates the locality from which they originally came. Most of the Rabhas have, however, left their ancestral home and settled in Darrang, Kamrup, and Goalpara. In the last named district the bulk of the tribe are to be found south of the Brahmaputra.

Males	...	3,863
Females	...	3,886

The Rabhas are divided into the following seven sections—Rangdania, Pati, Maitariya, Koch, Batlia, Dahuria, and Sangha. The Rangdania lay claim to a position of superiority, but intermarriage is allowed with the Patis and Maitariyas. Intermarriage between the first three sections and the lower subdivisions of the caste is permitted, but only on payment of a fine of about Rs. 100. The Rabhas look down upon the Garos and in their turn are treated as inferiors by the Mech. Like the other animistic tribes, they are fond of beer, pork, and chicken, but they abstain from beef. Their villages are not unlike those of the Mech, they have gardens and fruit trees, but pigs and fowls do much damage, and the homestead is very different from the green dankery of bamboos, fruit trees, and vegetables which surrounds the houses of the Assamese. Agriculture is their usual occupation and rice the staple crop grown. What money they require is usually obtained by the sale of surplus produce or work in the forests of the district.

Adult marriage is in vogue, and wives in the Garo Hills are said to be extremely cheap. As a rule they can be had for nothing, and it is only occasionally that the lover has to pay thirty or forty rupees for the object of his affections. Vermillion is smeared on the bride's forehead, a practice which does not obtain among most of the aboriginal tribes, but the essential part of the ceremony is the killing of two fowls and the feasting of the villagers. The Pati Rabhas go further than this, and model their procedure as closely as possible on the Hindu ceremony. The dead, too, are generally burned, unless an

epidemic is in progress, when it is thought that the infection might be conveyed in the smoke of the funeral pyre. Their chief god is called Rishi, and is represented by a pot of rice on a bamboo platform, to which offerings of fowls and pigs are made. After death their souls are said to be absorbed into Rishi, a Buddhistic form of doctrine, buttheir views on the subject, like those of other animistic tribes, are probably extremely vague.

Religion. The Garos appear to believe in a supreme deity and in a future life, but, as is usual in the hills, the bulk of their religious activities are devoted to the propitiation of evil spirits, who are supposed to be the cause of the misfortunes that befall them. The following is an accurate description of a Garo sacrifice:—"The priest squatted before a curious flat shield of split bamboo and cane, and muttered strangely to himself, as though under the influence of some drug. A villager kept dragging a kid in a circle round and round the priest and his curious god, and each time as it passed the priest dabbed it on the head with a little flour and water. Finally a little of the mixture was forced into its mouth and it was summarily beheaded. The blood was allowed to pour upon a plate of rice, which, with the tail, was offered to the deity. The rest of the animal went to form part of the feast." For further details with regard to the religion of the people reference should be made to the monograph on the Garo tribe.

Christianity. The American Baptist Mission first opened a branch at Tura in 1877, though missionaries had been sent to Goalpara town to labour amongst the Garos in 1867, and

two Garos had been baptised in Gauhati in 1864. The efforts of the missionaries have been rewarded with a fair measure of success. In 1881, there were 656 Native Christians in the hills, in 1891, there were 1,154, and by 1901 the number had risen to 3,629, the immense majority of whom were Baptists. There were in that year seven missionaries residing in Tura, four of whom were ladies. The missionaries encourage a certain degree of independence amongst their followers, and to a great extent leave the management of the various communities to the native elders. One of the most prosperous Christian villages is situated just across the border of the district near Damra in Goalpara.

Statistics for the religions which had a considerable number of adherents will be found in Table III. "Others" are represented by 3 Jains, who were Marwari shop-keepers, and 272 Buddhists, nearly all of whom were Nepalese.

Occupations.

For all practical purposes the occupations of the inhabitants of the Garo Hills begin and end with agriculture. Agriculture was returned as the principal means of livelihood of nearly 96 per cent of the population in 1901, and even those who returned some other avocation on the census schedules were generally dependant on agriculture for their support to a greater or less degree. Reference will be made in a subsequent chapter to such industries as are in existence in the hills.

CHAPTER IV.

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF THE PEOPLE.

Agriculture—Live stock—Forests—Industries—Wages—Prices—Food—Dress—Dwellings—Prosperity of the people—Trade—Communications—List of important forest reserves.

Agriculture. General conditions. In the hills the Garos cultivate their land on the system known as *jhum*. A spot of land is selected on the hill side, and the jungle cut down during the cold season. Towards the end of March, the trees and brushwood are burned as they lie, and the rice crop is planted in April at the commencement of the rains. Shortly afterwards, the seeds of vegetables, cotton, pepper, and pulses are sown in the same clearing ; and each crop is reaped in rotation as it comes to maturity. The Abengs are, however, the only section of the tribe who sow rice in the first year that the *jhum* is cleared. The other sections begin with a miscellaneous crop. Miscellaneous crops include different kinds of yams, arhar (*cajanus indicus*), which is reared as food for the lac insect, ginger, indigo, and turmeric. In the second year, rice only is grown ; and after two years' cultivation the clearing is abandoned and suffered to lie fallow for about ten years. Neither plough nor spade is used except in the few Hinduized villages bordering on the plains. The sole implements of agriculture are a short *dao* fixed in a long handle with which the Garos clear the jungle, and a

small hoe. The cotton is short in staple and poor in quality, but contains a small proportion of seed and has been found suited for mixing with woollen fabrics.

A more detailed account of the system of agriculture practised by the Garos will be found in the monograph by Captain Playfair.

The plains mauzas. The system of cultivation followed in the plains mauzas resembles in all essential details the system that prevails in the neighbouring district of Goalpara. The plough is used, and the staple crop is rice. Mustard and jute are grown for export, and tobacco is a common garden crop. Figures showing the area under different staples in the plains mauzas will be found in Table V.

Live stock. The live stock of the district include buffaloes, cattle, goats, pigs, and poultry. Buffaloes are generally kept by Nepalese, and cost about Rs. 15 for a bull calf and Rs. 45 for a cow. The cattle are neither worked nor milked, and are in consequence sturdy little animals. In the front room of many Garo houses will be seen a fat well favoured beast, which is being kept to serve as the *piece de resistance* at the next funeral feast. Bullocks and cows usually cost about Rs. 20 each. Goats are used for food and sacrifice, pigs are of the ordinary black variety.

Forests. In 1904, there were 18 reserved forests in the Garo Hills, and they covered altogether an area of 139 square miles. The majority of these reserves are small patches of land, not more than one or two square miles in area, which bear sal (*shorea robusta*) or other valuable kinds

of timber trees. The receipts obtained from each reserved forest in 1900-01 and subsequent years will be found in Table VI. Further details with regard to the six reserves that are ten square miles or more in area are appended to this chapter.

The most valuable forests in the district are the sal forests along the northern border. There are patches of sal in the interior intermixed with other trees such as sam (*artocarpus chaplasha*), ajhar (*lagerstrœmia flos reginæ*), poma (*cedrela toona*), paroli (*stereospermum chelonoides*), sida (*lagerstrœmia parviflora*) and gomari (*gmelina arborea*), but a considerable portion of the hills has been cleared at one time or another for the shifting cultivation of the Garos, and land which has once been *jhumed* produces little but bamboo and low scrub jungle. In a subsequent chapter it will be shown that on the northern and western frontier of the district a belt of land, a large part of which is covered with forest and jungle, is owned by the Mechpara, Karaibari, and Bijni zamindars. Except in the case of what is known as the Mechpara B mahal, the forests on this land are managed by Government, who retain 25 per cent of the total collections. The Mechpara B mahal is managed by the zamindars, and Government only receives 15 per cent of the gross revenue.

Forest administration and trade.

The district is divided into four ranges with headquarters at Damra, Phulbari, Mahendraganj, and Baghmara. Forest produce is, as a rule, brought down the rivers, and there are accordingly four check stations, one

at Dekachang for the Krishnai river, one at Nibari for the Jinari river, one at Manikarchar for the Kalu river, and one at Dalu for the Bhugai river. Any person who pays house tax or land revenue in the district can remove any timber and other forest produce which he requires for his own use, free of charge. If he wishes to trade in small unreserved trees and unimportant minor forest products he takes out what is known as a *gurkati* permit, for which he pays one rupee. Foreigners pay three rupees for these *gurkati* permits. Sal, sam, and ajhar, and, in the Someswari valley, nahor and poma are the trees in which the biggest trade is done. They are cut up into *dhums*, or logs about seven or eight feet long, which are used for boat building, or into *gools*, or logs from fifteen to twenty feet in length. These logs are made up into rafts, which are attached to dug-out canoes, and floated down the rivers in August and September to depôts at Marnai, Dubapara, Nagarbera, Dalu, Ghoshgaon, and Baghmara, where they are purchased by traders from Bengal. There is also a considerable trade in canoes which are hollowed out of titasapa (*michelia champaca*), koroi (*albizzia procera*), gomari (*gmelina arborea*), jam and ajhar. Royalty is levied in the case of sal or sam at the rate of 6 annas a cubic foot, subject to a maximum of Rs. 10 per tree. For other reserved trees,* the rate is 4 annas a cubic foot subject to a maximum of Rs. 6.

The forest receipts and expenditure in 1900-01 and subsequent years will be found in Table VII. The receipts

* A list of reserved trees will be found on page 44 of the Assam Forest Manual.

from each of the reserves will be found in Table VI, and it will be seen that, as a rule, they contribute only a small portion of the revenue. In 1902-03, out of a total forest revenue of Rs. 81,000, only Rs. 6,000 were realized from the reserves. A royalty of Rs. 2 per maund is levied on all lac collected from unclassed state forests, and the receipts under this head often amount to a considerable sum. The Dambu reserve, which is situated on the border of the Khasi Hills, contains a fine growth of sal. On three occasions leases of this forest have been given on favourable terms to timber traders, but on each occasion the concession was resigned, as it was found impossible to work it at a profit. The receipts from the forests of the Garo Hills will probably increase as time goes on. The populous district of Mymensingh, lying immediately to the south, is largely dependent on the hills for its supply of timber, and the private forests in Goalpara have been reduced by overfelling. There are good waterways around the base of the hills, and the rivers are fit for the transport of timber for a distance of from ten to fifteen miles within the hills themselves.

Lac. Most of the lac produced in the Garo Hills is reared on the arhar plant (*cajanus indicus*), which is grown for this purpose in the *jhums*, though the insects are sometimes placed on different varieties of the *ficus* in the jungle. As far as is known the quality of the product is not affected by the tree on which the insect has been fed. The method of propagation is as follows :—Pieces of stick lac containing living insects are placed in baskets and tied on to the twigs of the tree on which the next

crop is to be grown. After a few days the insects crawl on to the young branches and begin to feed and secrete the resin. They are left undisturbed for about six months and the twigs encrusted with the secretion are then picked off. Ants and the caterpillars of a small moth sometimes do much damage to the insect, and a heavy storm at the time when they are spreading over the tree will destroy them altogether. Cultivated lac is only reared in a narrow belt of country along the north of the district between Phulbari and the border of Kamrup. The Garos think that it would be unlucky to rear lac in any other portion of the district, though small quantities are occasionally collected from the jungle. The lac is exported in the crude form of stick lac. The principal centres of the industry are in the neighbourhood of Nibari and Damra.

The local industries are of no importance. The Garo women weave a coarse cotton cloth for the scanty garments of themselves and the men, and bamboo mats and baskets are also made for sale. Rude pottery is made in certain villages, but nearly all the metal utensils are imported. **Industries.**

There is no labouring class in the district, and consequently no market rate of wages, though the village headmen occasionally give advances to their poorer neighbours, and by this means induce them to come and work for them as servants. Labour is required for getting in the harvest, but this is provided by a system of mutual assistance, the villagers helping one another and receiving help in their turn. Porters and coolies working **Wages.**

on the roads receive four annas a day, but they cannot be obtained without the intervention of the local officers.

Prices. Table VIII shows the price of common rice, salt, and matikalai at Tura in 1880, 1890, 1900, and subsequent years. The price of rice fluctuates considerably from year to year, but as each household generally grows enough for its own consumption, and no more, variations in the price have little effect upon the district as a whole. The price of salt has fallen considerably since 1903.

Food. The staple food of the Garos is rice, but their dietary is much more varied than that of the people of the plains, and, in addition to rice, they grow in their *jhums* yams, beans, millet, maize, and chillies. They also eat the flesh of almost any animal, domesticated or wild, which they can get. Dog is esteemed a luxury. Milk, like other hill tribes, they eschew. This aversion of the inhabitants of Assam to milk is referred to by the historian of Mir Jumla's invasion in the seventeenth century, and the description given of these people then would apply to the Garos at the present day. "They eat whatever they get, and from whomsoever it be, following the bent of their uncivilized minds. They will accept food from Muhammadans and other people; they will eat every kind of flesh except human, whether of dead or killed animals. They taboo butter, so much so that they will refuse food if it only smells of butter."*

Dress. The Garo costume is as scanty as is compatible with decency. The men wear a narrow cloth, which is passed between the legs and fastened round the waist, and which

* J. A. S. B. Vol. LXI., Part I, No. 1, page 80.

does not really effectually cover the part it is intended to conceal. The woman's cloth, which is only about fourteen inches broad, is fastened round the body below the navel, the two top corners meeting over the thigh; the bottom corners are left unfastened, as otherwise the petticoat would be too tight for comfort. The women load their ears with masses of brass earrings, and individuals have been seen with more than 60 brass rings, each $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches in circumference, and weighing altogether just under 2 lbs., in the lobe of a single ear. The lobe, though enormously distended, was not broken; but the weight of the rings was to a great extent supported by a string passed over the head. The weapons of the hill men consist of spear, sword, and shield. The sword, which is peculiar to these hills, is a two-edged instrument, the blade and handle forming one piece. The shield is composed of thin strips of bamboo woven together so as to be almost proof against a spear thrust; or sometimes of bear skin stretched on a bamboo frame. Garos wear turbans wound tightly round the top of the head so as to keep the hair erect. The actual crown of the head is, however, bare. The other inhabitants of the district wear the usual costume of the Assamese, *i.e.*, a waist cloth and shawl, with occasionally a cotton coat for the men, and a petticoat and shawl for the women.

Dwellings.

The Hindus and Muhammadans live in small huts surrounding a neat courtyard, which do not differ in any way from the houses of the plains. Bamboo is the staple article used in the construction of the ordinary Garo house. The front room is on a level with the

ground, but as the houses are often from 80 to 100 feet in length and are built on the side of a hill, a considerable portion of the structure has of necessity to be raised on posts. The interior is divided into several compartments, but light and ventilation are alike lacking. There are generally one or more verandahs at the side or end, and in front two wooden posts are erected in memory of each dead member of the family. Before some houses there will be seen a regular sheaf of thirty or forty posts, some of which are roughly carved into the effigy of the human form and dressed in the clothes of the deceased. The horns of all cattle killed are also kept in the front verandah, as an abiding testimony to the wealth and liberality of the family.

Prosperity of people.

The Deputy Commissioner (Captain Playfair) is of opinion that, in comparison with the people of the plains, the Garos are extremely prosperous. Food of all kinds is readily obtainable, for their fields produce yams, beans, rice, maize, and chillies, and with such a miscellaneous crop it is very seldom that a complete failure of the harvest can occur. The people live in comfortable houses and feed well. Money is comparatively plentiful and high prices are paid for the Garo's greatest treasure, the *khora* or metal gong which they call *rang.* The intrinsic value of these articles must be very small, but old *khoras* often change hands at purely fancy prices. Bong Lashkar, for instance, realizing that with the advance of civilization the value of these articles was bound to fall, sold a collection of 60 for no less than Rs. 3,000; a large sum to realize from a community of semi-savages

for objects which are, after all, of no material value. Cotton, lac, and timber bring a considerable amount of money into the district, and the aversion which even the poorest of the Garos have to working for hire, indicates a complete absence of anything ordinarily known as poverty.

The following description of these *khoras* is taken from the Report on the general administration of the district in 1886-87 :— **Khoras.**

The trade in these "khoras" is a curious one. They are used chiefly as gongs, beaten at all their feasts whether on occasions of joy or sorrow. The people dance and sing to their music, their accumulation is the aim of every Garo's life, and their possession is a badge of respectability and position. They are a standard token of exchange throughout the district, they are precious heirlooms handed down from generation to generation. What old china is to the art collector, an old "khora" or rang is to the Garo, as in numismatics so it is for them as regards khoras, "it is the rust they value, not the gold." These khoras are even now made in Goalpara and Mymensingh and are sold according to the weight of metal. Rs. 8 would be a good price for a modern one, but an old one, whose intrinsic value might have been when new Rs. 5, will exchange for sums up to Rs. 250. The fortunate possessors of these old khoras are well known, and could always get full exchange value for them. The marks and signs on khoras of different generations are recognized by large numbers of the skilled. It has, however, been a marvel to me that the artificial demand has not produced spurious articles in greater quantities. One well known Garo told me without shame, indeed with pride, and told me in the presence of many other Garos, that he had some few years ago got khoras made in Goalpara on the pattern of an old one he had, that these new ones cost him Rs. 6 each, that he buried them in the ground for some months with salt, and then took them out converted in appearance into khoras many generations old, so old as to deceive the best judges, and so valuable as to have brought him nearly Rs. 100 each.

Trade.

The principal articles of export from the hills are timber, chillies, lac, and cotton. From the last two staples the Garos derive considerable profit, but there is little trade except in these four commodities, and in mustard and jute which are grown for export in the plains mauzas. In bad seasons a certain quantity of rice is imported into the hills from the district of Mymensingh, but the Garos are not a people of numerous or varied wants and satisfy most of their requirements from the produce of their farms. Other articles of import are salt, dried fish, live stock, and the brass earrings which are so dear to the heart of the Garo belle. Most of the trade of the district is conducted at the various markets, a list of which will be found in the Appendix. The only places in which there are any permanent shops are Tura, Baghmara, Cheran, Dekachang, Phulbari, and Mahendraganj, and at none of these places except Tura are there more than three or four.

Communications.

Communications, as is only natural in a sparsely populated, jungle-covered, and hilly country, are not particularly good. Tura is generally visited from the Rohmari steamer ghat, which lies from 35 to 40 miles to the east of it in the district of Rangpur. In the winter time there is often a tedious and difficult march of five miles across sandy *churs* from the steamer ghat to the inspection bungalow. There is no receiving flat, no floating dak bungalow, nothing but a few grass huts, occupied by steamer clerks and coolies, in the middle of this sandy waste.

The steamers often arrive late at night, and as there are broad backwaters to be crossed before the main bank is reached, the traveller starts upon his journey under most unfavourable conditions. The position of the ghat shifts, moreover, from season to season, and it is difficult for the casual visiter to estimate the exact degree of inconvenience that he is likely to experience, but that it will be very considerable he may feel quite sure.

From Rohmari a cart road runs past Manikarchar to Tura, 35 miles away. There are inspection bungalows at the following places. The figure in brackets represents the length of the stage in miles :— Rangapani ($6\frac{1}{2}$), Garobadha (9), Damalgiri ($8\frac{1}{2}$), Tura (11). The road is unmetalled, but the gradients are very easy, and the total length can be considerably reduced by in places following a bridle path. Another cart road runs from Tura to Dalu on the southern frontier of the district. The total length is $33\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and there are inspection bungalows at Adugiri ($10\frac{1}{4}$ miles), Kirapara ($9\frac{1}{4}$ miles), and Barengapara or Dalu ($11\frac{1}{2}$ miles). There are two bridle paths from Tura, one to Phulbari and one to Bangshi, and thence on to Damra. The former is 38 miles in length, and has inspection bungalows at Sugiri ($11\frac{3}{4}$), Sampalgiri ($9\frac{1}{4}$), Rongmachakgiri ($9\frac{1}{2}$), and Phulbari ($7\frac{1}{2}$). The latter is $72\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length and has inspection bungalows at Duragiri (8), Arbela (6), Megapgiri (13), Rongrengiri ($8\frac{1}{2}$), Songsak ($10\frac{1}{2}$), Cheran ($10\frac{1}{2}$),

Bangshi (10) and Damra (7). There is also a cold weather track from Manikarchar to Bahadurkata hat, a total distance of 22 miles. There are inspection bungalows at Kalaichar ($8\frac{1}{2}$) and Mahendraganj ($10\frac{1}{2}$). Off the cart road the only means of baggage transport are elephants and porters. The Garos carry their loads on their back, supported in that position by a band round the head.

The following statement shows in a condensed form the extent to which the rivers are navigable in the rains. The dug-out canoe is the vessel ordinarily employed, and except to a partial degree on the Someswari and Krishnai the rivers are not navigable even by them in the cold weather :--

Name of river.	Point to which navigable.
Ajagar.	Abhirampara.
Bhugai.	Selbulgiri.
Dudhnai.	Dhepa hat.
Ghagoan.	Khanchonkona.
Jinari.	Bajengdoba.
Kalu.	Garobadha.
Kolonkini.	Rajabala.
Krishnai.	Dekachang hat.
Lokai.	Dhoromchash.

Name of river.	Point to which navigable.
Nitai.	Chakpatgiri hat.
Rongai.	Bangalkata.
Someswari.	Siju, and above the rapids as far as Rongrengiri.

There are no telegraph offices in the district and only one post office, which is situated at Tura.

Brief Description of reserves not less than 10 *Sq. miles in area.*

Name.	Situation and character of soil.	Area in square miles.	Date when constituted.	Names of valuable timber trees found in any considerable number in the forest.	Routes by which timber is or could be extracted and centres to which it would be taken.
Rongrengiri	Situated in mauza No. 5 in the centre of the hills. The reserve is a series of plateaux and small hillocks. The surface soil is good throughout. The under-lying rocks consist of gneiss and mica schists and quartzite rocks and dykes of trap, also sandstone strata containing several out-crops of lime and coal.	14	23rd June 1883.	Sal covers almost two-thirds of the area, in places densely, elsewhere thin and scattered. There are a few makai and paroli trees, but generally speaking there is no other timber but sal.	The only route by which timber from this reserve could be taken is down the Someswari river if the river can be cleared at a considerable cost, to Baghmara.
Songsak ...	Situated in mauza No. 4 in the midst of the hills about 10 miles south-east of the Rongrengiri reserve. The soil is rich though immense boulders of gneiss occupy a considerable portion.	14	3rd October 1885.	Almost one-half of the reserve is occupied more or less densely by sal. There is little else but sal and scrub in the reserve, but among the latter there are a few paroli, gomari and makai trees.	Timber from this reserve can be extracted along the Rongri Nadi to Rongrengiri hat and thence by the Krishnai river to Marnai Depôt.
Chima-Bang-is.	Situated in mauza No. 4. The reserve comprises the first range of hills and the level	15	23rd June 1883,	The reserves contain a fair amount of sal in scattered and irregular	Timber can be taken to Marnai, Dubapara, Goalpara, Dhubri and Lower

	portion of the valleys on the west bank of the Dudhnai river. The rock is composed of gneiss and mica schists and quartzites. The level land in the valley consists of the wash from the adjoining hills.			blocks, but little other timber of any value. Sida, paroli, and karai trees are found in small numbers.	Bengal, by the Dudhnai and Brahmaputra rivers.
Jinari ...	Situated in mauza No. 3 close to the Goalpara boundary. There are two ranges of hills intersected by the valley of the Jinari, they consist of gneiss and quartzite rock. The valley is sandy loam.	10	23rd June 1883.	There is very little sal in this reserve, but a fair number of gomari, ajhar, paroli, poma and sida.	The Jinari and Brahmaputra rivers are the lines of export; by the former timber could be brought to Dubapara and Marnai and by the latter to Bengal.
Angratoli ...	Situated in mauza No. 1 on the border of the Mymensingh district. Comprises a range of low hills with a small area of plain land adjoining the Mymensingh district. The soil is rich.	17	28th January 1888.	Besides sal, which occupies nearly half of the reserve, karai is very abundant. Gomari and makai are also found.	Timber can be taken down the Buraghat river to the Mymensingh markets.
Baghmara...	Situated in mauza No. 1 on the Someswari river on the border of the Mymensingh district. The reserve is a series of hills and the soil, which is very shallow and poor, approaches clay in places, great boulders of sand-stone and conglomerate being exhibited on the surface.	19	26th February 1887.	There are narrow clumps of sal poles on the hills on the bank of Someswari. A few karai and rongi trees are found in this reserve.	The Someswari river which forms the western boundary of the reserve is navigable throughout the year, and timber can be floated by it to Baghmara and Mymensingh.

CHAPTER V.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Land revenue—Land settlement in the plains mauzas—Assessment in the hills—Revenue collections—Excise—Income tax and stamps—Public works—Government—Police and jails—Education—Medical.

Land Revenue.

For revenue purposes the district is divided into two distinct areas, the hills mauzas, (mauzas I to IV), and a narrow strip of country consisting of level land interspersed with low hills, on the northern, western, and southern frontiers of the district. This strip of country is nowhere more than six miles in breadth, and the average width probably does not exceed two miles. The form of revenue assessed in the hills is house tax, in the plains land tax, but before discussing the different tenures in force, reference must be made to the disputes that have arisen in connection with the boundary of the Garo Hills.

Disputes over northern boundary of Garo Hills.

In the chapter on the history of the district it has been shown that the Bengali zamindars endeavoured to levy imposts on the hillmen and to bring them under their authority. Between 1849 and 1854 the southern boundary of the Goalpara district was laid down by the revenue survey under Mr. Kelso, and for some years this line was accepted as the northern boundary of the district of the Garo Hills. The zamindars of the estates along the frontier still at that time laid claim to the

right to levy tribute and cesses from the Garos. In 1869, Act XXII was passed to authorise the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal to extinguish these rights on payment of compensation to the border landlords. With this object in view a boundary was laid down by Mr. Beckett, an officer duly authorised for the purpose, in 1873. Mr. Beckett, for reasons which are not quite clear, did not invariably follow Mr. Kelso's boundary. In places he carried his line considerably further north, and excluded from the district of Goalpara blocks of land, one or two of which covered an area of as much as six or seven square miles. Maps showing Beckett's and Kelso's boundaries will be found in R. A. Progs., June 1903, Nos. 53-114, and R. A. Progs., April 1902, Nos. 1-97.

Compromise with zamindars in 1878.

The zamindars naturally objected to the summary extinction of the rights they had formerly exercised over the land lying north of Kelso's and south of Beckett's boundary, and instituted civil suits against the Government. On examination it was found that these cases could not equitably be defended, and compromises were concluded with the zamindars. The whole of the land claimed by the Ghurlla or Gauripur zamindar was resigned by him in perpetuity, in consideration of the receipt of an annuity of Rs. 7,164. The rights of the Mechpara zamindars south of Kelso's boundary were extinguished in consideration of the payment of Rs. 14,700. With regard to the land lying between Beckett's and Kelso's boundaries, the Mechpara zamindars were allowed to continue to be in

management of the B villages, *i.e.*, the villages situated in the plains which had all along been managed by them and treated by them as part of their permanently settled estates. They were, however, bound to collect "all rent and profits" only at the rates fixed by the Deputy Commissioner of the Garo Hills, and were required to pay Government 15 per cent of the gross collections, as some return on expenditure incurred by the state in keeping the peace on a frontier which had previously been in a very disturbed condition. In the A villages, the villages inhabited by Garos, the management and collection of the revenue was made over to the Garo Hills authorities, but 75 per cent of the gross receipts were handed to the zamindars. Terms similar to those laid down for the Mechpara A villages were accepted by the Bijni zamindar, an offer of a lump sum of Rs. 840 in extinction of all his rights and interests having been refused. The rights claimed by the Karaibari zamindars in land lying south of the Kelso boundary were extinguished on payment of an annuity of Rs. 4,975, and the management of the villages between Beckett's and Kelso's line was handed over to Government, on the usual terms that 75 per cent of the gross collections should be made over to the zamindars.*

On the conclusion of these agreements Regulation I of 1878 was passed which declared Beckett's line to be the legal boundary of the Garo Hills. All rights of the

* *Vide* letter No 2063, dated 9-11-1878 from the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Assam to the Secretary to the Government of India, Home Dept., File No. 63 J. of 1878, General Department.

zamindars within the Garo Hills were thus extinguished except to such extent as they were recognised by the agreements.

Bijni A Mahal wrongly treated as khas nazarana.

No attempt was made to survey or demarcate the land which had been transferred from the Habraghat pargana of the Bijni estate to the Garo Hills. It was known that Bijni were entitled to 75 per cent of the gross receipts from certain lands which had formed the subject matter of compromise in 1878, but no one seems to have known exactly where these lands were situated. There were no maps or boundary marks and the Deputy Commissioner appears to have assumed that what was really the Bijni A *mahal* was *khas* land at the disposal of Government. The revenue of a portion of the estate was entirely appropriated by Government from 1880-81 onwards, while in another portion half the revenue was credited to Government and half to certain Garo *lashkars* between 1880-81 and 1886-87. In 1887, the Deputy Commissioner came to the conclusion that the *lashkars* were not entitled to any portion of the revenue, and the whole of it was absorbed by Government. The managers of the Bijni estate were, however, dissatisfied with the small pittances which had from time to time been doled out to them. They pointed out that the profits of the land which had been excluded from the Habraghat pargana by Beckett's line, must have exceeded the trifling sums they had at long intervals received, and applied for a survey. Their request was granted in 1899. The survey disclosed that land which had for years been treated as

khas was in reality part of the Bijni A *mahal*, and in 1902, Government refunded to the Bijni estate Rs. 24,967 which appeared to be due on account of arrears of mesne profits.*

The nazarana land. In addition to the land lying between Beckett's and Kelso's boundaries there are strips of level land lying between Kelso's line and the foot of the hills, which are known as the *nazarana mahals* and form part of the plains mauzas of the Garo Hills. These strips have never been surveyed, but they are said to be about twenty-five miles long and from one to five miles in breadth. The total area of these so-called *nazarana* lands between Beckett's and Kelso's boundary lines, which form the Bijni A *mahal*, is 37,500 *bighas*, and the settled area in 1900-01 was 2,600 *bighas*. The cultivated area in the *nazarana mahals* south of Kelso's line was 4,800 *bighas*. The population of this tract in 1901 was 5,370, seven-elevenths of whom were Garos. A report on these *nazarana* lands was submitted by the Deputy Commissioner on February 12th, 1903 (R. A. Progs., June 1903, Nos. 53-114.)

Claims of Garos to land. Reference has already been made to the claims put forward by the Garos to land in the Habraghat pargana, and in 1903 the Bijni zamindar agreed to allow the Garos 25 per cent of the revenue realized from the Bijni A *mahal*, on consideration that they abandoned for ever all claim of any description to this land. In making this compromise it should be noted that the zamindar

* *Vide* No. $\frac{601}{3957}$ $\frac{M}{J}$, dated 1st September 1902, from the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner to the Government of India.

declined to admit that the Garos had any rights whatsoever in these lands. The Garos accepted this compromise, but subsequently repudiated it, as, misled by an intriguer, they put forward claims, for which obviously there is no foundation, to the whole of the Habraghat pargana.*

Land settlement in plains mauzas.

In the Plains there are two permanently settled estates with whose management Government has no direct concern. One estate, which is known as Pirpal Baklai, is situated near Mahendraganj and covers an area of 428 acres. The other is the Mechpara B *mahal* to which reference has been already made. The remainder of the plains mauzas is managed directly by Government, though, in the areas which form part of the Goalpara zamindaries, the landlords receive 75 per cent of the collections. In 1903-04, the net cropped area of the plains mauzas, including Pirpal Baklai, was 82,000 bighas, rather more than half of which was included in the boundaries of the zamindars' estates, and the total land revenue Rs. 28,732, more than two-thirds of which was realized in the zamindari *mahals*. Land revenue is assessed at the following rates per *bigha*:—*basti* Re. 1 or As. 12, *rupit* As. 8 and As. 6, and *faringati* As. 6 and As. 4. First class land is known as *kaimi*, second class land as *char*. In the hills, town lands and two small sites on Tura peak are held on annual

* The total revenue derived from the plains portions of the Garo Hills is not large, but the questions of boundary and title are a little obscure. The most important papers on the subject in the Assam Secretariat are File No. 63 J. of 1878. R. A. Progs., April 1902, Nos. 1-97; R. A. Progs., September 1902, Nos. 63-74; R. A. Progs., June 1903, Nos. 53-114; and R. A. Progs., March 1905, Nos. 90-124.

leases, and the Baptist Mission hold 84 *bighas* of land on a thirty years' lease in Tura station. Land in Tura station which is not occupied by Government servants for residential purposes is assessed at Rs. 2 per *bigha* with a minimum assessment of Re. 1, except in the bazar where the rates are Rs. 4 and Rs. 2 respectively. The rate assessed on land held on 30 years' lease is Re. 1 per *bigha*. The total current land revenue demand in the plains mauzas in 1903-04 was Rs. 37,500, out of which the zamindar's share amounted to Rs. 15,600. Plough cultivation on low land in the hills mauzas is also assessed to land revenue, but for purposes of administrative convenience such land is always amalgamated with the plains mauzas. *Jhum* cultivation on outlying hills in the plains mauzas is taxed at the rate of Rs. 2 per cultivating house.

Assessment in the hills. In the hills no attempt is made to measure up the actual area under cultivation, but a tax is levied of Rs. 2 per house, except in a few villages which are included in the zamindar estates. The incidence of this taxation is much lighter than the incidence of land revenue in the plains. The Garos are prosperous and the question of raising the house tax and of thus compelling them to contribute a little more towards the cost of the administration of the district is now under consideration.

Garo rights in land. In the hills, the *nokma* or headman of the village is, according to Garo customs, considered to have *jhum* rights over a certain tract of land. All members of the village are, however, allowed to cultivate rent free, and

even if a foreigner or Garo from another village settles on the land, he is only required to pay a purely nominal quit rent, such as four annas in cash or a present of fowls and liquor. The *nokma* thus, under Garo usage, reaps little or no benefit from such rights as he is considered to possess, and he does not appear to have ever occupied the position of an ordinary landlord.*

Revenue collection. For the purposes of the assessment and collection of the revenue the plains portion of the district is divided into four mauzas. The staff consists of four mauzadars and 12 mandals under a supervisor kanungo. In the hills house tax is collected by 55 lashkars and 5 sirdars, who are remunerated by a commission of 10 per cent on the collections. The current demand on account of house tax in 1903-04 was Rs. 43,000, out of which Rs. 3,400 was payable to the zamindars.

Excise. The revenue raised under the head of excise in the Garo Hills is insignificant. Details will be found in Table XII. There is one opium shop at Mahendraganj. Opium is only consumed by the people of the plains mauzas, many of whom satisfy their requirements from shops in Goalpara or Mymensingh, and even the shop at Mahendraganj obtains its supplies of opium from the Dhubri treasury. There are two ganja shops, one at Garobadha and one at Mahendraganj, and country spirit shops at Mahendraganj and Tura. Revenue is raised at these shops on the out-still system. The Garos

* This description of the Garo theories with regard to rights in land is taken from Deputy Commissioner's letter No. 142 R., dated 20-8-03. The subject is a complicated one and it would not be safe to accept the views therein set forth as correct, without further inquiry.

however prefer their home-made liquor, of which they drink large quantities. The system of manufacture is described in the monograph on the tribe.

Income Tax and stamps. Income Tax is assessed in the Garo Hills, but the total number of assessees in 1903-04 was only 26, 14 of whom paid on salaries drawn from Government or other sources. Assessable assets of the zamindars contribute the bulk of the remaining tax. Revenue is realized both from Judicial and non-Judicial stamps, but the total amount so obtained is insignificant and in 1903-04 was less than Rs. 2,000.

Public Works. An overseer of the Public Works Department is stationed in the district, who works under the supervision of the Executive Engineer stationed at Dhubri. Public buildings and the road from Tura to Manikarchar are under the Department. The maintenance of the other roads and bridle paths is under the direct control of the Deputy Commissioner, who entrusts the repair of fixed lengths of path to the villages in the neighbourhood, for which they are paid at a contract rate per mile.

Government. There are no sub-divisions in the district and the usual staff posted at headquarters consists of the Deputy Commissioner, the District Superintendent of Police, who is also Commandant of the Military Police Battalion, and the Military Assistant Surgeon, both of whom exercise judicial powers during the absence of the Deputy Commissioner on tour. An Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests is also usually posted to the district. Special rules are in force for the administration of criminal and

civil justice.* The jurisdiction of the High Court is barred except over European British subjects in criminal cases, and the Chief Commissioner is the chief appellate authority. The Deputy Commissioner is empowered to pass sentences of death, transportation, and fine and imprisonment up to any amount, but the imprisonment must not exceed the maximum that could be awarded for the offence under the Indian Penal Code, and the fine is limited to the value of the offender's property. Death sentences, and sentences of seven year's imprisonment or transportation or more, require the confirmation of the Chief Commissioner.

Petty criminal cases may, under certain restrictions, be tried by the village authorities or *lashkars*, who may impose fines up to the amount of Rs. 50. Civil cases up to any amount may be tried by the *lashkars* under similar restrictions, provided that the parties are resident in their jurisdiction. Judicial work is not heavy and in 1902 only 184 persons were brought to trial in the district, excluding persons brought to trial before the *lashkars* but not convicted, for whom there are no returns. Fifty-five civil suits were disposed of in the same year, but only four were contested.

The Garos have developed the theory of the liability, to civil damages to a quite unusual degree. Every injury demands appropriate compensation or *dai*, and rather amusing instances are on record of the grounds on which claims for *dai* have from time to time been

* Vide Manual of Local Rules and Orders, p. 92.

based. On one occasion a Garo was assisting his host to stuff the mouths of his guests with a savoury mess of rice and chillies. Inadvertently he dropped some of the food, and in picking it up scraped up a little mud with it. One of the guests discovered that there was some alien substance in the food that he was eating, and brought claims for heavy compensation. Strange to say the claim was allowed by the village headman, but disallowed by the Deputy Commissioner, on appeal. On another occasion, a wild elephant smashed in the roof of a hut in which an old woman was sleeping, put its trunk in through the hole, and tore from her ear a bunch of earrings. She promptly laid a plaint against the elephant, since, as it was a tusker, she argued, and not unreasonably, that, if only it could be killed, she could recover compensation from the sale of its tusks. In another case A sued B for damages because B's brother had died of cholera, and A's brother had subsequently contracted the disease and died. Compensation for loss of life due to epidemics introduced from outside is, however, quite in accord with the views of the hillmen on the northern frontier of the Assam Valley. Cases which cannot be decided by direct evidence used often to form the subject of an ordeal. One simple form which is still employed is to place a pot of water on a tripod over a fire and to see whether it boils within a certain time. Another kind of ordeal demanded from the defendant considerable faith in the justice of his cause and in the alertness and reliability of his guardian gods. The accused person submitted to be tied up for several nights

alone in the jungle, and if he was not taken by a tiger it was assumed that his story was correct. The milder manners of the present day still recognize this test, but substitute a *murghi* for a man.

Police and Jails.

The civil police of the district in 1901 consisted of 66 head constables and men under a sub-inspector. There are outposts at Dalu, Garobadha, Mahendraganj, and Phulbari, each with a strength of seven men, and a road post of two men at Khuapara. The garrison of the district is, however, furnished by a military police battalion, which in 1903 had a strength of 4 native officers and 183 non-commissioned officers and men. In the cold weather one native officer with a non-commissioned officer and 31 men are deputed to hold two outposts on the northern frontier of Kamrup. The rest of the force is concentrated at headquarters. There is a small subsidiary jail at Tura which has accommodation for 20 male and 3 female convicts. Further particulars with regard to the jail will be found in Table XIV.

Education.

Education in the Garo Hills is in the hands of the Baptist Mission, and such progress have they made that in 1903-04 15 per cent of the boys of school-going age were under instruction, a percentage more than double of that recorded in the Naga Hills and little inferior to that returned from Darrang and Lakhimpur. The proportion of girls at school was considerably higher than that returned from any district except the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. The total number of children at school in 1903-04 was nearly three times the number in the

Naga Hills, but even as long ago as 1874-75, when we had been only a few years in occupation of the hills, there were 457 children at school. There are no secondary schools in the district, but in 1902-03 there were 3 upper primary and 86 lower primary schools. There is also a special school at Tura in which Garos are trained to serve as teachers. The missionaries have translated a number of primers into the Garo language so that children are instructed in their own tongue, which is printed in the Roman character.

Medical. The district has always been considered to be most malarious and unhealthy, and for many years it was thought that it would be quite impossible for Europeans to live amongst these low and densely wooded hills. In spite of this, there was a substantial increase in the population between 1891 and 1901, and it is probable that the Bodo tribes themselves have become, to some extent at any rate, immúne to malarial poisoning. Malaria fevers of severe remittent and intermittent type are, however, common in every portion of the district, from June to October being the most unhealthy season of the year. In the early days of our occupation the district suffered from that acute form of malarial fever known as *kala-azar*, whose symptons are described at length in the Gazetteer of the Nowgong District. The attention of the authorities was attracted to this disease as far back as 1869,* and it is said to have been the cause of serious mortality amongst the Garos, especially in the villages in the low hills on the northern frontier of the

* *Vide* Appendix A to the Sanitary Report of the Province of Assam in 1882.

district. The disease gradually burnt itself out, and in the eighties ceased to be of much importance. Cases of *kala-azar* still, however, occur amongst the villager on the hills near the Darang river.

The Garos are fully alive to the advantages of vaccination and during the five years ending with 1902-03 no less than 108 per mille of the population were successfully vaccinated, a ratio nearly three times as high as that reported for the Province as a whole. Small pox is in consequence by no means common. Cholera is not endemic in the hills but sporadic cases not unfrequently occur. The custom of eating decomposed meat and fish not unfrequently gives rise to outbreaks of ptomaine poisoning, with symptoms closely resembling those of cholera. Leprosy is also said to be unusually common.

There are four dispensaries in the district, two at Tura, one of which is a private dispensary managed by the missionaries, and one a Government Hospital with accommodation for in-patients, one at Dalu, and one at Mahendraganj. Ulcers and skin diseases are the complaints most generally treated at these dispensaries, but there are a large number of cases of malarial fever, and of diseases of the eye and of the respiratory system. Further details with regard to these dispensaries will be found in Tables XVII and XVIII. Venereal diseases are apparently not common. When left to themselves the Garos treat most ailments by prayer and sacrifice, though they apply the juice of a plant, which has a corrosive effect, to malignant sores.

APPENDIX.

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STATEMENT A.

List of markets.

Name of the place at which market is held.	Days of week when held.	Name of the place at which market is held.	Days of week when held.
Tura ...	Saturday ...	Samandagiri ...	Every 12th day.
Garobadha ...	Tuesday ...	Hallidayganj ...	Friday.
Rangapani ...	Thursday ...	Bhaitbari ...	Monday.
Kalaichar ...	Friday ...	Rajabala ...	Sunday.
Mahendraganj ...	Tuesday ...	Machanpani ...	Tuesday.
Kudal dhoha ...	Monday ...	Bangal Khatta ...	Wednesday.
Bahadurkata ...	Saturday ...	Mowlakandi ...	Sunday.
Pura kasua ...	Tuesday ...	Kanchon Kuna ...	Friday.
Dalu ...	Monday ...	Raghupara ...	Wednesday.
Gobra kura ...	Tuesday ...	Karkuta ...	Saturday.
Ghoshgaon ...	Saturday ...	Depa ...	Wednesday.
Baghmara ...	Tuesday ...	Rongrongiri ...	Saturday.
Chakpatgiri ...	Thursday ...	Bajeng duba ...	Thursday.

TABLE I.

Average maximum and minimum temperatures registered at Tura, in 1884.

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Year.
Maximum	66°·1	65°·1	85°·8	86°·9	83°·4	83°·7	85°·3	84°·4	85°·6	82°·1	77°·5	72°·6	79°·9
Minimum	53°·2	55°·1	66°·8	70°·0	68°·0	71°·6	74°·3	73°·8	73°·3	68°·4	61°·0	55°·7	65°·9

TABLE II.

Rainfall.

Months.	Average rainfall (in inches) for 30 years at Tura.
January	0·56
February	0·79
March	2·11
April	6·41
May	16·65
June	25·11
July	25·58
August	19·92
September	19·65
October	7·53
November	0·42
December	0·11
Total of year ...	124·84

TABLE III.

General statistics of population.

Particulars.			Persons.	Males.	Females.
Population ...	...	1901	138,274	70,035	68,239
		1891	121,570	61,213	60,357
		1881	109,548	55,951	53,597
		1872	100,780	50,390	50,390
Variation	...	1891–1901	+16,704	+8,822	+7,882
		1881–1891	+12,022	+5,262	+6,760
		1872–1881	+8,768	+5,561	+3,207
1901					
Religion ...	Hindus ...		13,274	7,233	6,041
	Muhammadans ...		7,804	4,143	3,661
	Animistic ...		113,274	56,542	56,732
	Total Christians ...		3,647	1,954	1,693
	Baptists ...		3,418	1,831	1,587
	Other religions ...		275	163	112
Civil condition.—					
	Unmarried ...		67,325	37,687	29,638
	Married ...		64,499	30,812	33,687
	Widowed ...		6,450	1,536	4,914
Literacy.—					
	Literate in Bengali		923	800	123
	Literate in English		104	82	22
	Illiterate ...		137,105	69,012	68,093
Languages spoken.—					
	Bengali ...		18,112	9,482	8,630
	Garo ...		106,948	53,412	53,536
	Rabha ...		6,301	3,128	3,173

Note.—The figures for 1891 and the preceding years have been taken from Imperial Table II of the Census Report of 1901.

TABLE IV.

Birthplace, race, caste, and occupation.

		Persons.	Males.	Females.
Birthplace.—				
	Born in district ...	124,644	62,397	62,247
	Born in other parts of Province.	8,175	4,451	3,724
	Born in Bengal ...	4,572	2,533	2,039
	" " the United Provinces.	84	67	17
	" " Nepal ...	753	557	196
	" elsewhere ...	46	30	16
Race and caste.—				
	European ...	18	9	9
	Garo	103,538	51,615	51,923
	Haijong ...	5,258	2,720	2,538
	Rabha	7,749	3,863	3,886
Occupation.—				
	Workers ...	79,765	42,885	36,880
	Dependents ...	58,509	...	...
Total supported.—				
	Land-holders ...	42,901	19,680	23,221
	Tenants ...	12,107	6,412	5,695
	Cultivators (unspecified)	75,380	40,585	34,795

TABLE

Crop statistics for the plains

Particulars.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Total cropped area ...	27,448	28,118	30,604	30,492
Area under rice ...	20,596	21,279	23,606	23,006
" " mustard ...	2,676	2,705	3,421	3,680
" " jute ...	2,027	1,876	1,311	1,800
" " all other crops ...	2,149	2,258	2,266	2,006

V.

portion of the district.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.

TABLE

Reserved

Name of Reserve.	Area in square miles.	Character of Forests.
Dhima	9	The quantity of sal is very disproportionate to the area and fairly thick at the south-east bend of the reserve. Lower portions of the hills are covered with Tarai bamboos.
Dilma	2	The reserve contains a good deal of sal with inferior mixed forest, occasional Sida, Koroi and other good trees are met with but bamboos cover a very large area.
Raja Simla	7	The forest consists almost wholly of sal mixed with bamboos, a few Sida, Koroi and Gomari trees being occasionally met with.
Ildek	2	Sal occupies the interior valleys and slopes and the hills facing Ildek. It is mixed with bamboos and probably does not occupy more than half the area. Koroi, Sida and Gomari very much mixed with bamboos are found in the lower portions.
Dambu	8	Sal occurs in patches both pure and mixed. Pure sal occupies the valley. Tarai bamboos mixed with scrub jungle are found in the deserted *jhums*.
Darugiri	4	Exceedingly well stocked with sal which covers the whole of the flat land in the centre. Hills on the north and in the north-east are covered with sal mixed with bamboo and lower hill forests.
Chima-Bangsi ..	15	Both hilly and level lands. There are scattered clumps of sal but very little other timber of any value. Sida, Paroli and Koroi are found here and there.
Rongrengiri ...	14	This is a series of plateaux and small hillocks two-thirds covered with sal.
Songsak	14	Hills. About half the forest is covered with sal.

VI.

Forests.

Receipts.											
1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.	1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
446	272	750	807								
21	...	...	...								
263	14	92	10								
326	616	747	105								
2,098	167	...	27,625								
...	...	...	...								
1,344	326	396	314								
12	20	...	...								
...	...	...	...								

TABLE

Reserved

Name of Reserve.	Area in square miles.	Character of Forests.
Siju	2	Sal occupies the south-east corner of reserve. The northern half of the reserve contains some fairly good mixed forest, but the remainder is mere scrub. The prominent trees are Sida, Makra, Gomari and Akshi.
Rewak	2	Sal occupies about ¼th of the reserve to the north-west. The triangular bit of low land along the bank of Someswari contains scrub, mixed with coarse grass and bamboos. In the rest of the mixed forest there are a few Sida and Makra trees.
Imangiri	3	Sal is in one compact block occupying the south-west of the reserve. Three-fourths of the area is covered with mixed forest containing Koroi, Sida, Makra, Paroli, Sam, Nahor and Ajhar.
Baghmara	19	Hills. There are narrow clumps of sal poles on the bank of the Someswari. A few Koroi and Rangi trees are also found.
Angratoli	17	A range of low hills with a small area of plain. About one half covered with sal. Koroi is abundant. Gomari and Makra are also found.
Dibru Hill	9	Patches of young sal occur here and there. The land to the west is very broken and sal plants are coming up on the top of the *tillas*. Towards the southern extremity, the forest is composed of more or less inferior evergreen trees and scrubs.
Bolsalgiri	1	There are 3 or 4 tiny patches of sal but most of the forest consists of bamboos and scrub.
Tura	1	Sal is scattered along the full length of the reserve. A few Gomari trees and Poma and Koroi are also met with.
Jinari	10	Plains. Little sal but a considerable quantity of Gomari, Ajhar, Paroli, Poma and Sida.

VI.

Forests—(concluded.)

RECEIPTS.											
1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.	1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	121	56	10								
34	97	565	99								
109	819	400	552								
653	483	646	127								
116	229	115	62								
516	221	1,985	1,583								
...	...	...	...								
61	50	10	116								
340	660	509	61								

TABLE

Fire protection and outturn of timber and

Details.		1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
Area in sq. miles under protection		134	134	139	139
Area in sq. miles protected ...		128	134	137	139
Percentage		96	100	99	100
Cost	Rs.	1,544	1,433	1,359	1,407
Reserved Forests.					
Area in sq. miles		134	134	139	139
Outturn (Government and purchasers only)— Timber ...	c.ft.	47,726	26,316	21,300	51,140
Fuel ...	c.ft.	...	192	...	8
Unclassed State Forests.					
Area in sq. miles		2,971	2,961	2,955	2,954
Outturn (Government and purchasers only)— Timber ...	c.ft.	1,231,196	8,82466	1,384,590	1,390,385
Fuel ...	c.ft.	2,051,200	1,276,052	2,248,248	2,243,365
Wax	Rs.	42	35	39	57
Lac	Rs.	...	133	11,614	6,865
Rubber	Rs.	17	...	...	...
Forest receipts ...	Rs.	48,849	51,747	81,284	1,07,110
Forest expenditure ...	Rs.	36,389	35,506	49,967	84,334
Balance	Rs.	12,460	16,241	31,317	22,776

VII.

fuel and value of minor forest produce.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.

TABLE VIII.

Prices of food staples in seers obtainable per rupee at Tura.

Year		Common rice.	Salt.	Matikalai.
1880	2nd Week of February ...	14	$5\frac{5}{16}$	8
	2nd Week of August ...	20	$5\frac{5}{16}$	$11\frac{7}{16}$
1890	2nd Week of February ...	10	$6\frac{7}{16}$	13
	2nd Week of August ...	10	7	11
1900	2nd Week of February ...	16	$6\frac{1}{2}$	8
	2nd Week of August ...	9	$6\frac{1}{2}$	10
1901	2nd Week of February ...	9	$6\frac{1}{2}$	8
	2nd Week of August ...	7	$6\frac{1}{2}$	8
1902	2nd Week of February ...	10	$6\frac{1}{2}$	8
	2nd Week of August ...	11	$6\frac{1}{2}$	8
1903	2nd Week of February ...	12	$6\frac{1}{2}$	8
	2nd Week of August ...	13	8	8
1904	2nd Week of February ...	15	8	10
	2nd Week of August ...	12	8	10
1905	2nd Week of February ...	16	8	11
	2nd Week of August ...			
1906	2nd Week of February ...			
	2nd Week of August ...			
1907	2nd Week of February ...			
	2nd Week of August ...			
1908	2nd Week of February ...			
	2nd Week of August ...			
1909	2nd Week of February ...			
	2nd Week of August ...			
1910	2nd Week of February ...			
	2nd Week of August ...			
1911	2nd Week of February ...			
	2nd Week of August ...			
1912	2nd Week of February ...			
	2nd Week of August ...			

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and

Heads of crime.	1902. True.	1902. Detected.	1903. True.	1903. Detected.	1904. True.	1904. Detected.
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly, sections 143-153, 157, 158, & 159.	...	...	1	1	2	2
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	1	1	2	1	1	1
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder and culpable homicide, sections 302-304, 307, 308, & 396.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(iv) Grievous hurt, and hurt by dangerous weapon, sections 324-326, 329, 331, 333, & 335.	1	1	...	...	1	1
(v) Serious criminal force, sections 353, 354, 356 & 357.	2	1	1	...	1	...
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	2	1	1	...	7	4
(vii) Dacoity, sections 395, 397 & 398	..	...	...	...	...	...
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning or maiming any animal, sections 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430-433, & 435-40.	3	1	1	1	1	...
(ix) House breaking and serious house trespass, sections 449-452, 454, 455 & 457-460.	23	2	17	...	7	1
(x) Wrongful restraint & confinement, sections 341-344.	1	...	...	...	1	1

IX.

Civil Justice.

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and

Heads of crime.	1902. True.	1902. Detected.	1903. True.	1903. Detected.	1904. True.	1904. Detected.
Criminal Justice—(concld.)						
Number of cases.						
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against the property.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(xiii) Theft, sections 379-382 ...	15	3	21	10	23	14
(xiii) Receiving stolen property, sections 411 and 414.	10	9	3	3	3	3
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house trespass, sections 453, 456, 447 and 448.	5	...	5	3	9	5
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	1	1	...	...	...	...
Total ...	64	20	52	19	56	32
Civil Justice.						
Suits for money and movables ...	39		65		64	
Title and other suits	1		1		2	
Rent suits	3		1		12	
Total ...	43		67		78	

IX.

Civil Justice—(concluded).

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Finance—

Principal Heads.	1890-91.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03	1903-04.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Land Revenue ...	13,507	19.658	19,451	21,211	20,885
House-tax... ...	35,379	39,676	40,245	39,700	39,580
Judicial stamps ...	908	904	934	994	1,310
Non-Judicial stamps...	473	619	590	526	604
Opium	87	140	...	147	120
Country spirit .	1,478	1,800	1,053	1,510	1,773
Ganja	154	652	553	691	965
Other heads of excise...	613	600	600	596	580
Assessed taxes ...	1,683	1,882	1,817	1,852	2,147
Forests	41,839	48,849	51,747	81,284	1,07,110
Registration	31	38	33	42	53
Total ...	96,152	1,14,818	1,17,023	1,48,553	1,75,127

X.

Receipts.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.

TABLE

Miscellaneous

Particulars.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Fisheries	808	1,265	1,365	1,832
House-tax	39,676	40,245	39,700	39,580
Other heads	1,962	2,390	1,505	2,132
Total revenue ...	42,446	43,900	42,570	43,544

XI.

land revenue.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.

TABLE

Ex

Principal heads.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
No. of opium shops ...	1	1	1	1
Amount paid for licenses ... Rs.	140	...	147	120
Opium issued ... ...Mds.	...	...	...	...
Duty on opium sold ... Rs.	...	...	...	...
No. of ganja shops ...	2	2	2	2
Amount paid for licenses ... Rs.	652	553	691	965
	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch	M. s. ch.
Amount of ganja issued ...	2 31 0	1 33 0	2 5 0	1 32 8
Duty on ganja sold ... Rs.	...	...	...	...
No. of country spirit shops ...	2	2	2	2
Amount paid for licenses .. Rs.	1,800	1,053	1,510	1,773
Other heads of excise revenue Rs.	600	600	596	580

XII.

cise.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.

XII.

cise.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.	M. s. ch.

TABLE XIII.

Strength of police force.

Particulars.	1891.	1901.
CIVIL POLICE.		
SUBORDINATE STAFF.		
Sub-Inspectors	1	1
Head Constables	8	8
Constables	58	58
MILITARY POLICE.		
Officers	28	25
Men	198	178
Total expenditure ... ... Rs.	52,242	66,054

In 1881 there were only frontier police and no civil police.

TABLE XIV.

Jail statistics.

Tura Subsidiary Jail.

		1881.	1891.	1901.
Average daily population ...	Male ...	17·90	19·57	14·84
	Female ...	·36	·14	·07
Rate of jail mortality per 1,000 ...	...	55	...	...
Expenditure on jail maintenance	Rs.	2,196	2,698	1,291
Cost per prisoner* (excluding civil prisoners)	Rs.	48	38	60
Profits on jail manufacture ...	Rs.	...	257	155
Earnings per prisoner † ...	Rs.	...	15	15

* On rations and clothing only.

† Calculated on the average number sentenced to labour.

TABLE
Edu

	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
PRIMARY SCHOOLS.				
Upper Primary Schools.				
Number	2	2	3	3
" of boys reading in Upper Primary classes.	13	23	6	44
" of boys reading in Lower Primary classes.	55	86	112	69
Lower Primary Schools.				
Number	83	97	86	91
" of boys reading in three Upper classes.	(a)1,106	(a)1,202	1,082	821
" of boys reading in Lower Primary classes.			52	497
FEMALE EDUCATION.				
Number of Girls' Schools ...	...	...	...	...
Number of girls reading (whether in girls' or in boys' school) in—				
Upper Primary Schools ...	8	7	8	7
Lower Primary Schools ...	228	239	213	228

(a) Separate figures not available.

XV.

cation.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.

TABLE XVI.

Educational Finance.

Particulars.	No. of institutions.	Expenditure on institutions maintained or aided by public funds in 1900-01 from—					Amount per head of scholar.
		Provincial revenues.	District and municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
Training and Special Schools ...	1	1,295	...	...	2,039	3,334	26 0 9
Primary Boys' Schools :—							
Upper	2	236	...	70	367	673	7 14 8
Lower	83	2,716	...	...	3,389	6,105	4 11 1
Total ...	86	4,247	...	70	5,795	10,112	6 10 11

TABLE XVII.

Medical.

Particulars.	1881.	1891.	1901.
Number of dispensaries	1	1	(*a*) 3
Daily average number of in-door patients	12·82	9·50	6·10
" " " out-door "	14·32	9·52	82·12
Cases treated	2,002	1,735	9,552
Operations performed	116	26	135
Total income ... ... Rs.	976	2,348	4,604
Income from Government ... Rs.	756	2,257	4,245
Income from Local and Municipal Funds. Rs.	15	...	...
Subscriptions	95	91	249
Total expenditure ... ... Rs.	821	2,348	4,567
Expenditure on establishment ... Rs.	214	1,428	2,215
Ratio per mille of persons successfully vaccinated.	(*b*) 23·76	44·48	89·59
Cost per case ... ... Rs.	Not available.	0 2 8	0 1 2

(*a*) Excludes the private dispensary at Tura in which 5 in-door patients and 3,324 out-door patients were treated and 72 operations performed.
(*b*) Figure for 1881-82.

TABLE

Dispen

Name of dispensaries.	1900.		1901.		1902.		1903.		1904.	
	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	
Tura ...	2,470	3,455	2,698	4,103	2,827	4,772	2,261	4,683	2,695	5,022
Dalu ...	865	3,756	853	3,973	911	4,202	776	5,451	1,061	6,102
Mahendraganj.	...	...	1,015	1,476	995	3,140	867	3,152	922	3,727

XVIII.

saries.

1905.		1906.		1907		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.
Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	

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Part III.

LUSHAI HILLS DISTRICT.

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CHAPTER I.
PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

Physical aspects—Plains—Rivers—Geology—Climate and rainfall—Botany—Fauna.

The district of the Lushai Hills is situated between 22° 20′ and 24° 27′ N. and 92° 20′ and 93° 29′ E and covers an area of 7,227 square miles. It is bounded on the north by the districts of Sylhet and Cachar and the Native State of Manipur; on the east and south by the Chin Hills; on the south by Arakan; and on the west by the Chittagong Hill Tracts and the Native State of Hill Tippera.

Physical aspects.

The whole of the district consists of ranges of hills running in a north and south direction, separated from one another by narrow valleys. The general height of these ranges is about 3,000 feet, though here and there, there are peaks over 6,000 feet in height, and the Blue Mountain in the South Lushai Hills rises to a height of 7,100 feet. The general elevation of the district rises towards the east, and in the Chin Hills there are several summits over 8,000 feet above the level of the sea. The sides of the hills are covered with dense forest or bamboo jungle, except in those places where they have been cleared for cultivation, and a stream or river is invariably to be found in the narrow valleys at their feet. The scenery of the district is thus described by Captain Shakespear, who served amongst the Lushais for many years.*

* *Vide* Journal of the Society of Arts No. 2201, Vol. XLIII, January 1895.

"From the summit of the Lungleh hill a grand view of the country is obtained. Turn to the west, and you look down over 2,000 feet on to a confused mass of hills and valleys stretching away to the horizon. It is a wonderful sight, these miles upon miles of tree-tops. Look which way you will, little but forest is to be seen. Here and there a cliff shows out white amidst the green, patches of bright yellow show where crops of rice are ripening, and here and there a hill-top is crowned by a little brown patch, denoting a village. For some twenty miles westward of Lungleh the country is practically uninhabited, and is the great hunting ground of the Lushais.

* * * *

"It would, I imagine, be difficult to find jungle more dense than that in the valleys between Demagiri and Lungleh—huge trees, with great buttressed trunks, raise their straight white stems to the leafy roof; creepers of all sizes wind round these massive columns, hanging in festoons from one to the other, or trail along the ground, twisted and knotted together. Ferns grow in profusion on all sides, on the rocks beside the streams, clinging to the trunks of the forest kings, and swinging in mid-air on the giant creepers. The branches of the trees are so covered with orchids that the bark is barely visible, while beneath is a tangled mass of vegetation, thorny canes and shrubs being twined together in such confusion that it is only by dint of much cutting and clearing that a passage can be made through it. The pace at which this jungle grows, during the rains, is almost incredible. In spite of two clearings yearly, the Government road is at times almost impassable. The bamboo jungle is monotonous to travel through, as the bamboos do not grow in clusters, but each stem by itself, and among the straight green stems there is no undergrowth to relieve the eye."

Plains. Here and there, amidst this jungle-covered waste of hills and narrow valleys, there are *plains*, which are believed to have formed in the beds of silted up lakes. They have as a rule an elevation of about 4,500 feet and are covered with a thick layer of rich alluvial soil. They are surrounded by hills which slope gently towards the plain, but are generally very steep, often precipitous, on the outer side. Through the centre runs a sluggish

stream which escapes through a narrow gorge, below which is generally a fall of some height. The largest of these plains is Champhai, which has a length of about seven miles, and, at the widest part, is nearly three miles across. A few miles north of Fort Tregear there is a plain at Vanlaiphai, about six miles long and from a quarter to half a mile in width. The slopes of the valley are, moreover, gentle and undulating, and thus give the plain the effect of being wider than it really is.

Rivers. The most important rivers are the Tlong or Dhaleswari, the Sonai, and the Tuivol which drain the northern portion of the country and eventually fall into the Barak. The southern hills are drained by the Koladyne on the east, with its tributaries the Mat, Tuichang, Tiao and Tuipui; while the Karnaphuli, at the mouth of which stands Chittagong, with its tributaries the Tuichong, Kao, Deh, Phairang and Tuilianpui form the western drainage system. The drainage levels of the country are unusually complicated. The Tlong for some 40 miles of its length runs due northwards, while parallel to it to the east the Mat and to the west the Deh run due south. In the same way the Tuivol and the Tuichang and the Tuilianpui and Gutur run parallel to one another for many miles, but in opposite directions. The Tuichong and Phairang run north till they join the Deh, which then takes a westerly turn and delivers their combined waters into the Karnaphuli which flows south-west.

Geology. The hills consist of sandstones and slabs of tertiary age, thrown into long folds, the axes of which run in a

nearly north and south direction. The rocks are a continuation southwards of those forming the Patkai range, and were probably laid down in the delta or estuary of a large river issuing from the Himalayas in the tertiary period. Marine fossils of that time have been found near Lungleh embedded in nodular dark grey sandstone.

Climate and rainfall. The valleys are feverish and unhealthy, and during the rains the climate, even on the lower hills, is moist and enervating. In the higher ridges it is fairly cool and pleasant even at the hottest seasons of the year. In March and April violent storms from the north-west sweep over the hills. The average rainfall at Aijal is 80 inches in the year; at Lungleh some distance to the south it is no less than 131 inches. The average rainfall in each month will be found in Table I. Owing to the steepness of the hillsides and the narrowness of the valleys the rivers rise after heavy rain with wonderful rapidity. During the last four days of May 1889 over 27 inches of rain fell in the South Lushai Hills, and the level of the Karnaphuli river rose over 50 feet.

Botany. The following account of the botany of the district has been received from the Director of the Botanical Survey of India. The Lushai Hills are clad for the most part with dense evergreen forest and bamboo. The most conspicuous and one of the commonest trees is *dipterocarpus turbinatus* distinguished by its huge size and immense buttresses. Other very common trees

are *saurauja punduana, schima wallichii, duabanga sonneratoides*. Figs are common, and at high elevations *quercus* and *castanopsis* abound. Palms such as *pinango, caryota, licuala* and *calamus* are frequent on the lower slopes. The undergrowth consists of such species as *clematis grewiæflora, abutilon polyandrum, hibiscus, triumfetta, crotalaria, flemingia, rubus, combretum, mussaenda, ixora, ardisia, jasminum, phlogacanthus, clerodendron, girardinia.*

Sutamineous plants of the genera *curcuma, amomum* and *alpinia* are quite common. Epiphytic plants are well represented by the abundance of orchids belonging to such genera as *dendrobium, bulbophyllum, eria, pholidota, cymbidium, aerides, vanda*, &c. Species of *raphidophora* are also very common. The herbaceous vegetation is not prominent consisting chiefly of such widely spread plants as *ageratum conyzoides, conyza stricta*, species of *blumea, gnaphalium, desmodium, begonia, hedyotis, heliotropium, mazus, toveria, rungia, plantago, amarantus, polygonum*, &c. Ferns are common belonging to such genera as *pteris, asplenium, nephrodium, polypodium, onychium, lygodium, angiopteris*

Wild animals are numerous in the more sparsely **Fauna.** populated portions of the district and include elephants, the two horned rhinoceros, bison, tigers, leopards, bears, and various kinds of deer. Bears are of two varieties, the Himalayan black bear (*ursus torquatus*) and the Malay bear (*ursus malayanus*) and are unusually

common. In 1904 rewards were paid for the destruction of 249 of these animals, or very nearly half the total number of bears killed in the Province of Assam. Wild dogs also are common and frequently kill off young stock. The serow (*nemorhædus*) is found on the higher hills. Small game include jungle fowl (*gallus ferrugineus*) and several kinds of pheasants.

CHAPTER II.
HISTORY.

Summary of raids—Raids on the south—Troubles in 1888—Further raids and expedition of 1889-90—Rising in 1890—Punitive measures—Outbreak in 1892—Promenade in 1892-93—Policy on the north-east frontier.

The history of our relations with the Lushai and Kuki tribes down to the end of the year 1883 will be found in the North-East Frontier of Bengal by Mr. (afterwards Sir Alexander) Mackenzie, pages 287 to 365 and need not be recapitulated here. Briefly, it is a history of their raids into British territory, and of our efforts to put a stop to this perpetual annoyance by punitive expeditions, by the locating of outposts along the frontier, and by diplomatic efforts. None of these measures were, however, productive of anything more than purely temporary results, and the tribes were never pacified till we had established a strong force in the centre of the hills.

Summary raids.

Before referring to the events of 1888 and later years, it is desirable to summarize the various raids and expeditions which are described at length in Mackenzie's North-East Frontier. The following were the most serious inroads into the Province of Assam. In 1844, Lal Chokla raided Sylhet and took 20 heads and was subsequently arrested by Captain Blackwood who led an expedition into the hills. In 1847, upwards of 150 persons were killed by Kukis, but it was subsequently

discovered that the massacre took place in Hill Tippera and not in British territory. In 1849, there were further raids into Sylhet and Cachar, and in 1850 Colonel Lister led an expedition into the hills, burnt one village and retired. In 1862, and again in 1868, there were further raids. In 1869, two columns of troops were sent into the hills under General Nuthall, but owing to the inclemency of the weather failed either to rescue the captives or to punish the offenders.

In 1871, there was an outbreak all along the frontier, and raiding parties entered Cachar, Sylhet, Manipur and Hill Tippera. In Cachar several tea gardens were attacked and at one of them, Alexandrapur, a planter, Mr. Winchester, was killed. In 1871-72, a strong force was sent into the hills divided into two columns which advanced from Chittagong and from Cachar. The Cachar column burnt Champhai, the principal village of the chief Lalbura, and the Chittagong column was equally successful. The effects of this expedition were felt for many years, and it was not till 1888, that the Lushais once more began to be a source of trouble.

Raids on the south.

Prior to 1860, there were numerous raids upon the Chittagong frontier, but that year is famous for what is known as the great Kuki invasion. These savages burst into the plains of Tippera near Chagulneyah, burnt or plundered 15 villages, killed 185 British subjects, and withdrew again with 100 captives into their jungly fastnesses. A small expedition was sent into the hills, but it produced little practical effect, and raids, though not

on such an extensive scale, continued to be made. Peace for sixteen years was, however, obtained by the expedition of 1871-72.

Trouble in 1888. In 1888, it was thought that the tribes had quietly settled down, and three British officers, Lieutenants Stewart, Baird, and Shakespear were deputed to survey the frontier on the south. Lieutenant Stewart, with two soldiers of the Leinster Regiment and a small guard of military police, was working on the Belaisuri range about twenty miles from Rangamati. He appears to have had no thought of danger, declined to post a sentry over the camp at night, and for one cause or another, reduced his guard till he was left with only the two European soldiers, a naik and five sepoys. Early one morning, he was surprised by a party of Pois headed by Hausata Dokhola, and Vantura, who found their victims completely unprepared. The European soldiers were still in bed and were killed where they lay, but Lieutenant Stewart and two sepoys were able to open fire upon their assailants. A shot through the breast soon laid that unfortunate officer low, and the two sepoys retired, taking with them two of their number who were at a little distance from the camp when the attack took place. Another sepoy was severely wounded at the first volley and subsequently killed. The cause of the raid was a dispute between husband and wife. Hausata had married a daughter of Zahuta, but he ill-treated her and she fled to her father for protection. The latter agreed to return her to her husband but for a price, the price in question being the heads of two persons who were not

Kukis or Lushais. It was to obtain these heads that Hausata sallied out upon the war-path. It was impossible at that time to make suitable reprisals, and in December 1888 two chiefs Lungliana and Nikama attacked a village which was only four miles distant from Demagiri, and killed and carried off the bulk of the inhabitants. Lieutenant Widdicombe, who was in command at Demagiri, at once hastened to the village, but the raiders had already left, and, as he had no provisions with him, he was unable to go further in pursuit. Punishment was, however, only for a time delayed, and in January 1889 a force, consisting of 57 British commissioned and non-commissioned officers and 1,225 men with two guns, under Colonel Tregear, was sent into the hills. The Lushais offered no opposition to this formidable host, and though Hausata's village was burnt, little damage, apart from this, was done. There was no fighting and there were only 29 deaths in a force, including followers and coolies, of nearly 4,000 souls. But the results obtained were very slight in comparison with the heavy expenditure entailed, and two British officers succumbed to the unhealthy climate of the hills.*

Further raids and expedition of 1889-90.

This demonstration of military activity had little effect upon the Lushais, and, at the very time when the expedition was in the hills, Lianphunga, a son of Sukpilal, despatched a raiding party which devastated the Chengri valley on the Chittagong frontier.† Thirty-seven

* *Vide* Report on the Lushai expedition of 1888-1889.

† It should, however, be added that the raid took place when the troops were only assembling at Demagiri.

persons were killed by the marauders and 75 were carried off as captives. To avenge this raid troops were sent into the hills, both from the north and south, in the cold weather of 1889-90. General Tregear was in command of the column operating from Chittagong, which had a total strength of 53 British officers and 3,294 of native rank and file. From the north, Mr. Daly advanced with a force of 247 military police of all ranks, and joined hands with Colonel Skinner who had been despatched with a strong body of troops from the southern column. Mr. Daly reached Changsil towards the end of January, and there received the great majority of the persons who had been taken captive in the raid into the Chengri valley. He then proceeded to Lianphunga's village which was situated to the south of Aijal. Lianphunga came in to meet him and stated that he had raided in the Chengri valley because the inhabitants had settled in their best hunting ground and declined to move, and that he was under the impression that they were the subjects of Hill Tippera and not of the British Government. Mr. Daly did not arrest the chief but persuaded him to promise that he would surrender to Colonel Skinner on his arrival, on the understanding that he should neither be transported nor hung. Unfortunately Lianphunga learned that there were eight Sahibs with Colonel Skinner's column, and thinking that eight Sahibs could over-rule the four with Mr. Daly, and that they might possibly repudiate the agreement made with him, he began to repent him of his promise. On the arrival of Colonel Skinner a day before he was expected.

Lianphunga absconded, and when the village was occupied by the troops, it was fired by the Lushais. A few skirmishes occurred during the next three weeks, but our total loss was only one man killed and one officer and two men wounded, while the Lushais admitted to having lost four men. The resistance offered by the enemy was in fact of the feeblest, but, as it had been clearly shown that expeditions which entered the hills and withdrew again had little permanent effect, it was determined to build a stockade at Aijal, to be held during the rains. While the work was in progress there was a large gathering at Thanruma's village a little to the north. But, though the Lushais lay across the line of communication, so anxious were we to avoid unnecessary hostilities, that they were allowed to disperse without being attacked.

While these events were taking place a column was detached which burnt the villages of the two chiefs, Lungliana and Nikama, who had raided the village near Demagiri. Vantura, one of the leaders of the raiding party that had killed Lieutenant Stewart, was captured by a reconnoitring party, but succeeded in making his escape, and he did not make his final submission till the end of 1890. A stockade was erected at Fort Tregear and was garrisoned with 200 rifles of the 2/2nd Gurkhas, while at Lungleh there were 140 rifles of the military police. Garrisons of military police were also left at Aijal and Changsil, and, in May 1890, Captain Browne, who had been appointed Political Officer of the North Lushai Hills, took up his quarters at the former place. The

control of the South Lushai Hills was at the same time entrusted to Captain Shakespear.

Rising in 1890.

One of the first duties imposed on Captain Browne was to mete out suitable punishment to Lianphunga, and in June 1890 he held a durbar at Aijal for the purpose. He passed an order deposing this chief for four years, but subsequent events made it impossible to enforce this sentence. The questions of the payment of house-tax and the supply of labour were referred to, but, as the chiefs regarded these proposals with disfavour, the matter was allowed to drop. The Lushais were, however, by no means satisfied, and the western chiefs entered into a conspiracy to attack the stockades at Changsil and Aijal and kill the Political Officer. The rising took place on September 9th, 1890, when attacks were simultaneously made on both stockades, and Captain Browne, who was marching down the road with a small escort was ambuscaded about two miles from Changsil. He was wounded in three places in the arm, but managed to struggle on to the stockade, where he died from exhaustion due to loss of blood, a quarter of an hour after he had reached a place of safety.

Beginning of outbreak.

The following description of the outbreak is taken from a letter by Lieutenant Cole who was in command of the stockade at Changsil.*

"Nothing eventful then happened until the morning of the 9th, when the men, to the number of about 120, were engaged at work on the new stockade. About 50 of them had brought up their rifles,

* No. I C. H., dated Changsil, the 12th September 1890. P and J—A, For. Progs., October 1890, Nos. 1—135.

which were piled in the centre of the stockade. Work was proceeding as usual, when suddenly a single shot was heard in the direction of the old stockade. This shot did not attract much notice, as it was thought it was probably fired by some of our men at game. However, one of the Jemadars went down to find out, and soon returned, saying the Lushais had come and surrounded the lower stockade. I then fell in the men at once round the palisading of the stockade. We were soon attacked, and we could have held the stockade for as long as we liked. However, as I heard very heavy firing and the bugler constantly blowing the alarm from the lower stockade, as the majority of the men with me were without arms, and as all our rations and ammunition were in the lower stockade, with only 30 fit men left to protect it, while it requires a garrison of at least 100, I had to leave it after about half an hour. I should have done so at once had it not been that I hoped by holding the upper stockade I should give Captain Browne, whom I expected, a better chance of arriving, but, as nearly all the Lushais must have come from the same direction as he was coming, I had little hopes of his arriving in safety. I then went down to the lower stockade at about 10 A.M., and the Lushais kept up a constant fire for some two hours afterwards.

"I was arranging to make a sortie when Captain Browne arrived about half an hour afterwards, a mass of blood and evidently badly wounded. He was at once attended to, and the bleeding stopped, but he had lost nearly every drop of blood in his body, and never recovered consciousness until he died, about fifteen minutes after his arrival, from collapse.

* * * *

"From what I can gather, the Lushais who came to attack us split themselves up into three parties, one of which went down to attack the bazar, which they looted after killing five out of the nine shop-keepers, and two boatmen. They also took their heads. The other party endeavoured to force an entrance at the lower end of the present stockade, and the third to do so at the upper end. They no doubt thought they would have good chances of success as nearly all the men were out on work, and they were all acquainted with our habits from constantly passing by the stockade while going to and from the bazar. Some of this latter party came up to the upper stockade to attack, when they were checked at the lower stockade."

Defence of the stockades. News of the outbreak was at once despatched down the Dhaleswari by Lieutenant Cole. Repeated attacks

were made upon both stockades, but that officer never expressed any doubt as to the capacity of the garrisons to hold out till reinforced, though with the small force at his disposal it was impossible to attack the villages of the revolting chiefs. In reporting on the outbreak to the Government of India, the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quinton, who, a few months later, was himself to fall a victim to the uncertain temper of the tribes upon the North-East Frontier, stated that, in his opinion, "Lieutenant Cole on this sudden emergency exhibited great coolness and sound judgment, to which it is probably mainly owing that the garrison was not surprised and cut off." Up to this date the Lushais had succeeded in killing Captain Browne, his clerk, seven coolies, five traders, two boatmen, one police sepoy, and one follower.

Death of Lieutenant Swinton.

Two hundred men of the military police were at once pushed up from Cachar under Lieutenant Swinton. In their passage up the Dhaleswari they met with considerable opposition. Flanking parties had been sent along the river banks, but near Lenkhunga's *jhums* they had been recalled to assist in hauling the boats over some strong rapids. The Lushais seized this opportunity to open fire. Lieutenant Swinton was seated in the front of his boat, his orderly standing by him. A bullet struck the orderly on the forehead, but glanced off and buried itself in the officer's stomach, inflicting a wound which very soon proved fatal. The troops were taken on to Changsil by Lieutenant Tytler, and two hundred more sepoys arrived at that place on September 30th. On

October 4th Thanruma, which lay between Changsil and Aijal, was attacked and destroyed, and Aijal itself relieved.

Punitive measures.

Mr. McCabe was then appointed Political Officer of the Lushai Hills, and no time was lost in punishing the offending chiefs. The villages of Hrangkupa, Lalhrima, Hmingthanga, Lalsavuta and Thanruma were captured and destroyed without much difficulty. A move was then made against the village of Khalkam, the most influential of the western Lushai chiefs. The village was attacked from two sides, and captured without loss to the attacking party, though ten of the Lushais were killed. During the next few days the hamlets in the neighbourhood and the crops were destroyed, whereupon Khalkam, considering further resistance hopeless, came in. The whole of the western Lushais then submitted, and Khalkam, Lianphunga, and Thangula, who were the heads of the conspiracy, were all deported.* Fines of one hundred and eighty-four guns in all were imposed, and a considerable amount of punishment labour was exacted. The Political Officer then carried out a successful promenade through the country of the eastern Lushais. There was no opposition, and in the course of this tour he went as far south as the village of Kairuma. On April 1st, 1891, the South Lushai Hills, which had been controlled by an Assistant Political Officer under the Commissioner of Chittagong, were formed into a district and placed under the control of a Superintendent.

* Khalkam and Lianphunga hanged themselves in the Hazaribagh jail in September 1891. Thangula was released in 1896.

The Lushais at this time appeared to be quietly settling down under our rule. The villages which had been destroyed were gradually rebuilt, and house-tax was even paid, though with some demur. In January 1892, Mr. McCabe met Captain Shakespear and the other officers of Lungleh at Kairuma's village and proclaimed to the assembled chiefs at a durbar the unity of the Government policy in the hills. This was no unnecessary precaution as the hillmen were inclined to regard the officers of South and North Lushai as the representatives of two separate and distinct authorities.

Outbreak in 1892.

In the following month Mr. McCabe proceeded to Lalbura's village with an escort of one hundred sepoys of the military police to enforce a demand for coolies which had been quietly but steadily ignored. The village was entered on February 29th without resistance, but the chief failed to appear before the Political Officer. On the following day, as paddy was being collected, 300 Lushais armed with guns were seen approaching. A volley was fired at them, which drove them back into the jungle, but this was only the signal for an attack delivered from every side. The village was fired by the Lushais and Mr. McCabe was compelled to retire to the crest of the hill on which it stood. Attacks were made upon this position in the evening but were repulsed without much difficulty, and on the following day the troops, who had by this time been reinforced from Aijal, occupied another hill and erected a stockade. Repeated attacks were made on this position, and on parties sent out to destroy grain and other property until the 10th April,

when a reinforcement of 300 men of the 18th Bengal Infantry arrived at Fort Aijal from Silchar, and an advance was made from Lalbura against Poiboi's village. This village was taken after some fighting on the 18th April. From that day until the end of May parties of police and military were continually employed in scouring the country, attacking the implicated villages, and destroying all stores of grain and other property that they could find. The villages of Lalruiya, Lalhleia, Bungteya and Maite were successfully captured and destroyed. With the destruction of the last-named village the campaign against the eastern Lushais came to a close and the expeditionary force returned to Aijal on the 8th June 1892, leaving a detachment of one hundred men in occupation of Lalbura's village. This chief did not finally submit till 1896 when he was allowed to found a village on payment of a heavy fine.

Captain Shakespear, on learning of the attack on Mr. McCabe, at once started to his relief, but the Howlongs rose to oppose his advance, and, as he had only an inadequate force at his disposal, he found himself unable to advance beyond the village of Vansanga until relieved by a column from Burma under Mr. Carey and Captain Rose. On their arrival the villages of Lalhrima, Lalkanglova, Tlongbuta, and Rochungnunga were destroyed.

An incident of the Eastern Lushais' rising, which deserves notice as showing the ease with which small parties of Lushais or other hillmen can attack any exposed portion of our extended frontier, was the raid of

a small party of Eastern Lushais on the Barunchara tea estate in the Hailakandi subdivision of the Cachar district. This raid, in which 42 coolies were killed, was made on the 4th April 1892, and was undoubtedly undertaken in the hope of inducing the Political Officer to abandon the advanced post at Lalbura.

Promenade in 1892-93.

During the cold weather of 1892-93, a column of military and military police under Mr. Davis, who had assumed charge of the North Lushai Hills, co-operated from Fort Aijal with a column operating from Lungleh under Captain Shakespear, to complete the punishment of the Howlong villages concerned in the outbreak of the previous cold season. Serious opposition to the advance of these two columns was expected on the Bengal side, but it became evident, some considerable time before the columns were ready to march, that any resistance was unlikely, and, as a matter of fact, none was offered. Mr. Davis subsequently visited the villages of the Kairuma group with an escort of 150 police and military, and at Kairuma's village, met Captain Shakespear who had with him an escort of similar strength.

Kairuma still gives trouble.

On the conclusion of this expedition the district settled down, but for some time longer the chiefs of the Kairuma group of villages were inclined to dispute the authority of the Sirkar. Rice was supplied without demur for the use of the Shership outpost, and coolies for the carriage of the Political Officer's baggage when he visited the village, but the chiefs themselves declined to meet the Political Officer and coolies were not provided

for work on the Aijal road. Kairuma was accordingly fined 60 guns, and, as he still declined to make his submission, his village was visited in December 1895, by the Political Officer from Aijal with an escort of 300 rifles. Smaller columns co-operated from Falam and Lungleh, and thus demonstrated our ability to attack those who disputed our authority from every side. The chiefs still proved recalcitrant, and Kairuma's village was wholly, and the village of Jaduna, a Fanai chief who had disobeyed orders from Lungleh, was partially destroyed. A military police outpost was also established at Kairuma's village of Tlaikuong. In April 1898, the South Lushai Hills were transferred to the Assam Administration, and the district assumed its present form. Further information with regard to the history of the Lushai Hills will be found in the report on the Lushai expedition of 1888-89, and the report on the Chittagong column of the Chin-Lushai expedition in 1889-90, both of which were compiled in the Intelligence Branch of the Quartermaster-General's Department in India ; in the Political Report on the North Lushai Hills for the year 1890-91, printed in F.A. Progs., August 1891, Nos. 30—38 ; in the Report on the outbreak in 1892, printed in F.A. Progs., December 1892, Nos. 14—141 ; in a note recorded by Major Shakespear in 1905 ; and in the Administration Reports of the Lushai Hills district.

Mr. McCabe's political report on the North Lushai Hills for 1890-91.

The following opinions with regard to our relations with the Lushais have been left on record by Mr. McCabe, an officer of great experience of the tribes on the North-East Frontier.

We have had relations with the Lushai tribes since 1844, when Lalchokla raided on the Manipur colony of Kochabari in Partabghar and took 20 heads. From that time up to 1871 the districts of Sylhet and Cachar were repeatedly attacked and various measures were tried in order to facilitate the improvement of our relations with these tribes. Our policy had been an ever varying one, but it was finally decided in 1871-72 to maintain a chain of outposts along the frontier, and to send one of the Cachar officers to make annual visits to the hills and use his influence in adjusting inter-village disputes and in cultivating friendly relations with the leading chiefs. This may be described as more or less a policy of non-intervention, repudiating all desire of annexation, while at the same time attempting to thrust the thin edge of our influence into the councils of the Lushais.

The history of the North-East Frontier is pregnant with proof of the utter fallacy of the judgment prompting this line of action, and a consideration of the mental training of the savage tribes on these borders will clearly show in what light they regarded it. Every Lushai, Kuki, or Naga is brought up with the idea that rapine and bloodshed are meritorious acts, and that "he has right who has the might, and let him keep who can." Leniency, mercy, conciliation and a respect for the rights of property are all looked upon as signs of weakness, and are treated with contempt.

I quote an extract from a letter published in the *Observer* on the 25th February 1871 after Mr. Edgar's visit to the Western Lushais.

"Sukpilal was invested with a dress of honour specially made for him,—green *pyjamas* with scarlet and gold flowers, a purple coat with green and gold embroidery, an indescribable hat of green and white silk, a necklace of glass buttons and gold beads and two glass ear-rings. One farewell tot of 'Edgars peculiar,' and the Sahib and the savage parted with mutual esteem. The policy of conciliation had reached its grand climacteric. But before the patient diplomatist had reached his bungalow in Silchar, messengers from the Lushai had proclaimed in Manipur that the Sahib had been into the hills to pay tribute to the chiefs, sure proof of their puissance and significant warning to their remaining foes. * * * What had Sukpilal done to bring down on him such showers of good things? Simple question! He had raided with impunity and success. Nothing could be more congenial to their own habits and wishes. If Sukpilal had slain his tens, they would slay scores. If he had butchered defenceless peasants, they would have heads of police, of sepoys, and of Sahibs."

The raids of 1871-72 on Ainerkhal, Alexandrapur, Katlichara, Maniarkhal, Nagdigram, Jhalnachara, and Kacharipara, may fairly be placed to the credit of the policy of conciliation.

To my mind there are only two possible lines of treating these and cognate tribes: one is absolute annexation, and the other total non-intervention. Half measures are futile, and those adopted must be "thorough," a conciliatory policy being useless, as it is always of a fluctuating nature, according to the special idiosyncracies of the officers deputed to enforce it. On the North-East Frontier both these systems can be used with advantage.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION.

Villages—Migration—Sex and marriage—Infirmities—Language—Tribes—Religion—Occupations.

The statistics of population call for little comment. The Lushai Hills is a great expanse of jungle covered hills, with a sparse but homogeneous population. It is barely fifteen years since we occupied the country, and only one census has been taken of the district. The ethnographical matter, which figures so largely in census reports and gazetteers, will be found treated at length in the monograph on the Lushai tribe which is now under preparation by Major Shakespear, and need not be referred to here. The district covers an area of 7,227 square miles, the population in 1901 was 82,434, and the density was thus only 11 to the square mile. This indicates a sparseness of population which is phenomenal even in Assam, for the density of the district is only a third of that existing in the Naga, or the Khasi and Jaintia Hills.

There are no towns in the district, and in 1901 the people were living in 239 villages, the great majority of which were small hamlets with less than 500 inhabitants. **Villages.**

Major Shakespear gives the following description of a Lushai village :—

"Villages are generally built on the top of a ridge or spur, and not on the slope of the hill, as is the custom among the Chins.

The cause of this, I think, is that the hills are higher in the country inhabited by the Chins, and therefore they can get healthy sites without going to the top of the ridges. In former days, the choice of the village site was much influenced by its defensive capabilities, the migratory habits of the people precluding their constructing the elaborate defensive works found round the Chin villages. When we first occupied the hills, every village was strongly stockaded, two and even three rows of stockades being found in some cases. The gateways were commanded by timber block houses, and at suitable points on the roads block houses were built which were occupied whenever there was any fear of attack. The ground round the stockades and block houses was planted with sharpened bamboo spikes, which formed a very serious obstacle to a barefooted foe.

"The villages are laid out in streets all radiating from some central open spot, facing which is the chief's house and the *zawlbuk* or guest-house. The houses are built on piles on the natural slope of the hills, and thus the floor of one house is often higher than the roof of the house below it.

"The houses are all constructed in the same manner and on the same plan. At the end nearest the road is a rough platform of logs which is the place for cleaning the *dhan* in. On the front wall of the house over this platform are hung the horns of any animals the owner of the house may have killed, and among them are the baskets in which the hens hatch out their broods. The doorway has a very high sill, and the door consists of a sliding panel of bamboo work. The fireplace consists of an earthen hearth, in which three upright stones are inserted to hold the cooking pot. Above this are two bamboo shelves on which articles which require drying are kept. On each side of the fireplace are bamboo sleeping platforms, that furthest from the door being for the father and mother, the other for the daughters. Beyond the family sleeping platform is a partition, the space between which and the end wall of the house is used as a lumber-room and closet, from this a back door opens out on to a small platform. The chief's house only differs in size, generally having two rooms, the one nearest the entrance being for the use of the slaves. Windows in the sides of the house are considered unlucky, unless the right to make one has been purchased by killing two metna and feasting the village. The houses are built of timber uprights, but the walls, floor, and roof frame are made of bamboo; the thatching material used is generally cane leaves, but occasionally grass is used. Over the cane leaves broad bands

of split bamboo are tied down from eave to eave, giving the roof a rounded appearance from the outside. A long coop under the eaves is the sleeping place of the fowls, who gain access to it by a ladder made of a knotched stick.

"The *zawlbuk* is a large hall, with a huge hearth in the centre and a sleeping platform at the far end. The front wall stops about three feet short of the ground, and to enter the building you have to stoop under this, and then climb over a barrier of equal height placed a few feet further in. This building is the sleeping place of the young men of the village, and of any strangers who stop there the night. It is also a sort of general meeting house. The boys of the village have to keep up a sufficient supply of fire-wood for the *zawlbuk* fire.

In the centre of one of the streets will generally be found the blacksmith's forge, a small house, built on the ground level, but with a platform in front of which passers-by can sit, and lighten the labours of the smith by their conversation. The bellows consist of two hollow logs in which pistons are worked up and down, from the lower extremity of each log a tube runs to a hole in a stone placed immediately behind the stone on which the charcoal fire rests. A very moderate movement of the pistons gives an excellent draught. The blacksmith repairs all the tools of the village, but some of them are capable of a good deal more than this.

Migration.

There is very little to attract immigrants to the Lushai Hills, and 93 per cent of the persons enumerated there in 1901 had been born inside the boundaries of the district. A few hundred people had moved across the frontier from Manipur and the Chittagong Hill Tracts, but the bulk of the immigrants came from Nepal and were serving in or had been connected with the military police battalion. There is practically no emigration from the hills, except across the frontier of Manipur.

Sex and marriage.

The proportion of women to men is very large, larger in fact than in any other district in the Province. In 1901 there were 1,113 females to every 1,000 males, the

corresponding figure for the Province as a whole being only 949. Amongst the Lushai tribes the proportion of the sexes was very nearly as 6 to 5. The cause of this surplus of women is not quite clear, but it is a phenomenon which is common to nearly all the animistic tribes, though not in quite so marked a degree. The early marriages that are so common amongst Muhammadans and Hindus tend to diminish the mean duration of female life, and from this disability the Lushais are fortunately free. In 1901 not one per cent of the married women in the district were less than 15 years of age.

The following account of the marriage customs of the Lushais is extracted from an account by Major Shakespear :—

"Each clan has a regular fixed price for its girls, and any one wishing to marry a girl must pay this price sooner or later. The price varies from three metna to ten according to the clan. The price is always stated in metna, but the actual articles given or the amount paid in cash is subject to arrangement. The father or the nearest male relative on his side receives this price, but the bridegroom has also to pay many other persons. The girl's aunt will get a sum varying from Rs. 40 to Rs. 5, the elder sister gets a small sum for having carried the bride about when she was young. The bride appoints a male and female friend or protector, and each has to be paid a small amount by the bridegroom. The bride takes with her certain cloths and ornaments, but these remain the property of the girl's male relatives unless she has a child to inherit them, in which case an extra payment, varying according to the quality of the dowry, has to be paid. The nearest male relative on the bride's mother's side has also to be paid a sum varying from Rs. 40 to Rs. 4. These sums are never paid at once—in fact, many men never complete paying the price of their wives, and leave the debt to be cleared off by their children.

" A young Lushai generally chooses his own wife, and sends a Palai, or ambassador, to her parents to arrange the details of the price to be paid. These settled, the bride is escorted to her future husband's parents' house, by a party of friends, being pelted with dirt by all the children of the village. The parents of the bridegroom receive the party with brimming cups of rice-beer, and when justice has been done to this, a fowl is produced by the bridegroom and slain by the Puithiam or sorceror, who mutters certain charms over it. Directly this is over, the bride and her girl friends retire, while the rest of the party indulge in a great feast, the bridegroom having to provide a fowl for each of those entitled to a share in the price of the bride. The following evening the bridegroom's mother goes and fetches the bride and hands her over to him at his house. The following morning the bride returns to her parents' house and spends the day there. This she continues to do for some time. The bonds of matrimony are very loose. If a couple do not get on they can separate by mutual consent, or if the husband does not like the woman he can simply send her back to her parents. In both these cases he does not recover any part of the price he may have paid, and the recipient of the price is bound to support the woman till she is married again. If the woman commits adultery, or leaves her husband without his consent, her relatives have to refund whatever they received on her account. A widow is at liberty either to return to her own people, in which case her late husband's relatives take all his property and his children, or she may continue to live in his house, in which case she retains his property in trust for his children, but should she indulge in an intrigue she is considered to be an adulteress, and her relatives have to pay back her price to her late husband's relations, who take all the property and also the children.

" Until a girl is married she may indulge in as many intrigues as she likes, but should she become pregnant her lover must pay a metna to her father; he will, however, be entitled to take the child when it is old enough to leave its mother. In case the child is a girl, the father of course gets the marriage price in due course. If a man is willing at once to marry a girl whom he has seduced he is not expected to pay more than the usual marriage price.

" All clans intermarry, the children taking the father's clan name. The marriage of first cousins is rare amongst the common people, chiefly because the parents of the girl prefer taking her price from some one outside their family circle. Among chiefs,

who are anxious to marry their children to the children of other chiefs, the marriage of first cousins is more common. Except his mother, sisters, daughters and aunts, a man may marry any woman he likes."

Infirmities. The abstract in the margin shows out of 10,000 males the number in the Lushai Hills, Assam, and the Indian Empire, afflicted in 1901 with the four special infirmities selected for record at the census.

	Insane.	Deaf-mutes.	Blind.	Lepers.
Lushai Hills ...	29	16	19	1
Assam ...	5	9	10	13
Indian Empire,	3	6	12	5

Insanity is extraordinarily prevalent—why it is difficult to say, as the Lushais do not take intoxicating drugs and the marriage of near relations is said to be unusual. Whatever the cause may be, it is probably also responsible for the large percentage of deaf-mutes. Blindness is always common in the hills, where the smoke and dirt in the hillman's house must tend to produce ophthalmia.

Language. Lushai or Dulien, which belongs to the Kuki-Lushai group of languages, is the *lingua franca* of the district. It is described by Dr. Grierson in the Linguistic Survey of India, Vol. III, Part III, page 130. Messrs. Lorrain and Savidge have written a grammar and compiled a dictionary of the language. Other languages or dialects belonging to the Kuki-Chin group which are spoken in the hills are Zahao, Lakher, Mhar, Paite, Ralte and Ngente. Major Shakespear is, however, of opinion that these variants from the main stock will be gradually absorbed and that Dulien will become the language of the district.

The indigenous inhabitants of the district are, according to Major Shakespear, all of one race. The great majority of them are Lushais or Duliens, but there are also a considerable number of Pois, or immigrants from the Chin Hills, and Hmar, a tribe which was driven out of the district into Manipur, but is now gradually returning to its former haunts. The people are divided into a number of different clans, who are differentiated from one another by distinctions in their sacrificial ritual. The Ralte, Paite, Thado, and Lakher are easily distinguishable, but many of the remaining clans can hardly be distinguished from the Lushais, and such differences as exist are disappearing every year. For information with regard to the organization, and manners and customs, of the different tribes, reference should be made to the monograph now under preparation by Major Shakespear. **Tribes.**

Ninety-five per cent of the population of the district are still faithful to the religion of their forefathers, of which the following account is given by Major Shakespear.* **Religion.**

"The Lushais and all other tribes in the hills believe in a supreme being who made the world: he is known as Pathian, but is not thought to take much interest in the doings of people. Far more important to the average man are the numerous Ramhuai or demons who are supposed to inhabit every hill and stream, and Khuavang, a spirit sometimes spoken of as the same as Pathian, but generally considered as less powerful, but more concerned with mankind. Every illness, every failure of crops is put down either to the influence of some demon or of Khuavang, and the whole of

* Report on the Census of Assam in 1901, page 148.

a hillman's existence is spent in propitiating these spirits. The Puithiam, or sorcerer, is supposed to know what particular spirit is the cause of the trouble, and what particular sacrifice will appease him. The number of these sacrifices, and the different ways in which they have to be performed, would fill a thick book. In all of them the flesh of the animal killed is eaten by the sorcerer and his assistants, the least toothsome portions only being left for the demon. Small figures representing human beings and animals are also offered to the demons. Besides these sacrifices, there is a special sacrifice to the patron spirit of the hearth. This can only be performed by a member of the clan, and the method of performing it varies in every clan.

"The most generally accepted theory as to what happens after death is that the spirits go to 'Mit-thi-khua,' but that those men who have slain men or animals in the chase or have feasted the village are able to cross the Pail river to an abode of great comfort, where there is plenty of food and drink to be got without any work. As women cannot go to war nor kill wild animals, and are not allowed to give feasts, they can only reach this happy land if their husbands take them. Existence in "*Mit-thi-khua*" is full of trouble and worry.* After a certain period in one of these two abodes of departed spirits, the spirit is again born as a hornet, and after a time assumes the form of water, and if in the form of dew it falls on a man it is re-born in his child."

Details for other religions will be found in Table II. The pioneer missionaries, Messrs. Lorrain and Savidge, commenced work at Aijal in 1894, but were obliged to leave the district in 1897. Their work was carried on by the Welsh Calvinistic Mission, and as the two pioneer missionaries returned in 1903, there were altogether in 1905 four missionaries working in the district. Christianity has not, however, as yet had time to make much progress, and in 1901 there were only 26 natives who professed that faith.

* The Lushais think that Mit-thi-khua is situated in the Ri lake in the Chin Hills.

Occupations. The occupations of the indigenous inhabitants of the hills begin and end with agriculture, and are of no interest from the statistical point of view. Agriculture was returned as the means of livelihood of nearly 93½ per cent of the population in 1901. The remainder were foreigners, the great bulk of whom were in Government service. Only 167 people were said to be supported by trade.

CHAPTER IV.

AGRICULTURE AND CONDITION OF PEOPLE.

Agriculture—Live stock—Forests—Arts and industries—Food and dress—Condition of the people—Communications—Trade.

Agriculture. The system of agriculture is described as follows by Major Shakespear :—

In February the Lushais begin to select the sites of their cultivation. These are called *jhums*. The chief has first choice, and after him the *Ramhual*, or councillors of the chief, and then the rest of the people. Each of the *Ramhual* pays the chief from three to five baskets of rice for the land he occupies, whereas only one basket per house is demanded from the ordinary villager. Having chosen the site for his *jhum*, the Lushai has to clear it, a work of great labour, as the only tools available are his dao, a chisel-edged knife about 15 inches long, and a small axe with a head weighing about 1½ pounds. The thicker the jungle the better the crop is a Lushai maxim. In tree jungle all the undergrowth and as many of the trees as possible are felled, those that are too big for felling are cleared of their branches. In parts where the jungle is bamboo the work is comparatively light, but the crop is not generally so good ; on the other hand bamboo land can be cultivated every four or five years without the bamboos being exterminated, so that if a chief has two village sites some miles apart he can move backwards and forwards from one to the other all his life time. Tree jungle, if continually felled and burned, gives place to coarse grass, and the land, according to Lushai ideas, is then useless for cultivation, for they consider the manuring of the ground by the burning of a heavy mass of felled jungle to be absolutely necessary. By the middle or end of March the felling is over, and the hot April sun effectually dries the wood ready for the firing of the *jhums* in May. During this month the sky is hidden by dense clouds of smoke, miles of hillside often being ablaze, the fire having spread from the *jhums* to the jungle. Any charred trunks which remain are dragged to the edge of the *jhum*, and built into a close fence, for rats, jungle fowl, pheasant,

deer, &c., would leave the poor Lushai but little of his crop if he did not take this precaution. Openings are left in the fence every now and then in which snares are set to catch unwary intruders. In spite of the utmost care, however, they often lose heavily from the onslaughts of these pests.

About the end of May the whole family turns out to sow the seed, a line is formed at the lower edge of the clearing, and the party moves steadily upwards, scratching holes with their broad-bladed knives, and dropping a few seeds into each. Seeds of various sorts are occasionally sown in the same holes, and each comes up in turn. Rice is the chief crop, but melons, maize, pumpkins, millet, peas, beans, cotton and tobacco are also grown. The maize ripens first and is eagerly expected by the improvident Lushais, who are generally hard up for food, having used more rice than was wise in the manufacture of beer. If a village has had bad crops, the people at once begin moving to some village where food is more plentiful, or the adults set off in large parties to buy rice wherever it is to be had.

Live stock.

The live stock include tame mithun or bison (*bos frontalis*), pigs, goats and dogs. The pigs are carefully tended, and treated almost as pets ; the goats are of the long-haired hill breed. Dogs are used as articles of food, and are said to be similar to those eaten by the Chinese. They are of medium size, with long yellow hair, short legs, a bushy and tightly curled tail, and a pointed nose, and are in great requisition for sacrificial purposes.

Forests.

A portion of the Inner Line Reserve of the Cachar district falls within the borders of the Lushai Hills. The whole of this reserve is, however, managed from Cachar, and there are no details available with regard to the part which is actually situated in Lushai land. A considerable portion of the district is still covered with tree forest. A list of the principal trees will be found in Chapter I.

Arts and industries.

The arts and industries of the hills are naturally not of much importance. The women weave excellent cloths from their home grown cotton, and the men are clever enough at making baskets. Earthen pots and pipes are also manufactured, and the blacksmiths are more skilful than is usual in Assam. Very good moulding in brass is occasionally to be met with, and some of the smiths are able to manufacture gun locks.

Food and dress.

The staple food of the people is rice, but they will eat almost anything that they can get except rhinoceros and the hooluk monkey. They are not parti cular either, as to the state of putrefaction that their meat has reached. Milk, like the other hill tribes of Assam, they eschew. When a feast is given in a village the meat is boiled in huge earthen pots, and spread out on mats and plantain leaves. The guests then eat their meat without condiments, and wash it down with draughts of the water in which it was boiled. After they have finished the first course they retire to their houses and eat great quantities of rice. Beer made of fermented rice is the national drink, and is not unfrequently taken to excess. Both sexes smoke continuously. The men use pipes with bamboo bowls and a long straight stem, the women's pipes have bowls of clay and are constructed on the principle of the *huka*. The water impregnated with nicotine is carefully preserved, and each man carries a small gourd full of it. From time to time he sips a mouthful, keeps it in his mouth for a few minutes, and ejects it. It is said to act as a kind of stimulant.

Men wear a single cloth about seven feet long and five feet wide, wrapped round the body in such a way as to leave the right arm bare. Women wear a short dark blue petticoat, kept up by a brass girdle, and reaching nearly to the knee, and a short white cotton jacket. In the winter they add a cotton wrap, while the men wear cotton jackets under their shawls. Amongst the Pois and the Fanais the men wear their hair in a knot above their foreheads like the Daflas and Miris in Assam. The men of the other tribes fasten it in a knot at the nape of the neck and make all secure with ivory combs and large pins of brass or other metal. Women generally twist their hair into a knot at the back of the head. Both sexes wear amber and bead necklaces, when they can afford them, and ear-rings. The ear-rings of the women are discs of baked clay or ivory often two inches in diameter, which are fixed into the lobe of the ear and distend it in the most unsightly manner. The arms of the men are guns, spears, and daos. The guns are flint-locks, mostly old tower muskets. The stocks are carved and ornamented with patterns of red or black lacquer. Mithun horns serve as powder flasks, and are also adorned with patterns of red and black. Spears are not valued much as weapons of offence : the fighting dao is a modification of the Burmese dao and is known as *ṭawlnam* or Burmese dao.

Condition of the people.

Judged by their own low standards the hillmen are extremely comfortably off. The Lushais are a migratory people, and, as they have to transport all their possessions every fifth year or so to a new village, they

have little inducement to accumulate much property. The people themselves produce all that they require, and it is said that in South Lushai the Lushais have more money than they know how to spend. The district is sparsely peopled, the *jhums* yield abundantly, and there is still plenty of jungle to give cover to the game. Porters and coolies employed on road-work receive the liberal wage of eight annas per diem. These persons have, however, to be impressed, as the Lushais are too prosperous to voluntarily undertake hard work, even for such a liberal wage as eight annas a day. Famine seldom occurs, but, in 1881, there was a scarcity in the hills due to the ravages of innumerable swarms of rats. In the previous season, the bamboos had seeded, and the supply of food thus provided caused an enormous increase in the number of these rodents, who, when they had exhausted the bamboo seed, devoured the rice crop. The Lushais descended to the Surma Valley, not to raid but in search of work and food, and Government sent about 750 tons of rice and paddy into the hills.

Communications. Prior to our advent the only means of communication in the district were the Lushai paths and the rivers, and both alike were bad. At the present day there are bridle paths to most places of importance in the hills. Aijal is connected with the Cachar district by the Dhayar band path, by which it is 89½ miles to the Cachar frontier and 120 miles to Silchar. There are rest-houses at the following places starting from Aijal: the figure in brackets represents the length of the stage :—Neiboi (11 miles), Taito (16 miles), Bolpui (12½ miles), Kolosib

(15 miles), Kukimara ($15\frac{3}{4}$ miles), Rengti (12 miles), Kanglai in Cachar ($9\frac{1}{2}$ miles). For travellers from Aijal to Cachar, it is, however, quicker to go to Sairang ($12\frac{1}{2}$ miles) and then boat down the Dhaleswari to Salchapra, a journey which can be performed in three or four days in the cold weather and two days in the rains. Another path runs from Aijal to Falam, the total distance to the place where it crosses the Tiao river being 106 miles. There are inspection bungalows at the following places :—Sonai (11 miles), Sakeilui ($13\frac{7}{8}$ miles), Saitual ($13\frac{3}{8}$ miles), Dulte (14 miles), Tuishen ($11\frac{1}{4}$ miles), Neidawn ($14\frac{3}{4}$ miles), Champhai ($12\frac{1}{2}$ miles). South of the Falam path there is a path to North Vanlaiphai, the total length of which is 91 miles. The following are the stages on this path :—Paikhai (11 miles), Zobawk (14 miles), Chinchip (11 miles), Chiatlang (14 miles), Keithumkawn ($13\frac{1}{2}$ miles), Checkawn ($15\frac{1}{2}$ miles), North Vanlaiphai (12 miles). From Keithumkawn a path runs to the Koladyne on the Lungleh-Haka road. West of this path runs the Aijal-Lungleh road almost due south from Aijal to Lungleh, a total distance of 107 miles. The inspection bungalows are located at the following places :—Sibutalang ($13\frac{3}{4}$ miles), Thiak (13 miles), Sialsuk ($13\frac{3}{4}$ miles), Thenzawl ($13\frac{1}{2}$ miles), Ramlai Tui (14 miles), Howlong (14 miles), Shaja ($12\frac{3}{4}$ miles), and Lungleh ($11\frac{1}{4}$ miles). From Lungleh a path runs to Demagiri (42 miles), and to the upper Koladyne river. The stages on the former are Ridge Camp ($10\frac{1}{2}$ miles), Lungsin ($13\frac{1}{2}$ miles), Tuichong (10 miles), and Demagiri (8 miles). On the latter Zobawk ($11\frac{1}{2}$ miles),

Leithe (13¼ miles), Darjow (11¼ miles), and South Vanlaiphai (10 miles). From Demagiri there is a path to Thega (6 miles), and a cart-road 2½ miles in length to the Karnaphuli river. There are five permanent bridges in the district and three ferries. Temporary bridges of bamboo, timber, and cane have been erected in other places. The Dhaleswari and the Karnaphuli are the only rivers in the hills that are used as routes for traffic. Boats of forty maunds burthen can proceed up the former river as far as Sairang even in the cold weather. The passage upstream is, however, very slow. In the cold weather a boat with a load of forty maunds generally takes three weeks for the journey from Silchar to Sairang, and in the rains the voyage is often twice as long. At that season of the year it generally takes a boat a week to negotiate the 6¾ miles of roaring torrent that separates Changsil from Sairang. A boat carrying ten maunds or so can, however, do the voyage from Salchapra to Sairang in ten days in the cold weather and in about sixteen to twenty in the rains.

Trade. There is no trade of any importance amongst the Lushais. A certain amount of wax is sold to the shopkeepers, and itinerant dealers from Burma, Manipur, and the Naga Hills peddle gongs and beads amongst the villages. Forest produce is exported from the district, but the business is in the hands of plainsmen who send their sawyers into the hills. The only villages in the hills in which there are shops are Aijal, Demagiri, Sairang and Lungleh. In Aijal there are seventeen

shops, at Lungleh there are two, and at Demagiri eight. Salt, cloths, brass pots, umbrellas, and ornaments are the articles which command the largest sale amongst the Lushais.

CHAPTER V.
GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Land revenue—Government—Constitution of Society—Criminal and Civil Justice—Garrison—Education—Medical aspects.

Land revenue. Land revenue is only assessed on the holdings of the missionaries at Lungleh and Aijal, and on the shop-keepers. The former pay at the rate of one rupee an acre, the latter at the rate of four annas a *katha* or one anna per running foot of frontage. The only tax paid by the Lushais is a tax of Rs. 2 per house, and even this is remitted in cases, though such cases are rare, of genuine poverty. The Lushais follow the system of *jhum* or fluctuating cultivation, but where possible, a definite tract of land, lying within clearly defined natural boundaries, has been assigned to each chief. Within these boundaries he can wander at will, without running the risk of encroaching on the land of neighbouring villages. Excise is not a question of any importance in the hills. No attempt is made to tax rice-beer, and the Lushais do not take intoxicating drugs or country spirit. Only one license is issued in the district, and that is for the sale of ganja at Aijal. Income-tax is only deducted from the salaries of Government servants. No revenue is realized in the hills either from judicial or non-judicial stamps, except in the case of civil suits instituted by foreigners.

Government. For administrative purposes the district is divided into two subdivisions, Aijal and Lungleh. Aijal is in

the charge of the Superintendent of the district who is allowed one Assistant Superintendent of Police as his immediate assistant. Two Assistant Superintendents of Police are sanctioned for Lungleh. For the purposes of internal administration the district is divided into eighteen circles, twelve in the Aijal and six in the Lungleh subdivision. Each of these circles is placed in charge of an interpreter, who lives at some central spot. Orders issued by the Superintendent are transmitted to this man for communication to the chiefs. He is also required to submit every fortnight a report on the state of the crops, and the general condition of affairs within his circle. Society is, however, organized on the aristocratic basis, and in all minor matters the people are subject to their chiefs.

Major Shakespear gives the following account of the relations existing between a chief and his people:— **Constitution of society.**

The people live in villages, each of which is ruled by a chief, who is entirely independent. Even a young son will not admit his father's right to influence him, after he has once established a separate village. The chief is supreme in his own village, but the people are very democratic, and have a very easy remedy if a chief oppresses them, *viz.*, to remove to another village. The chief settles all disputes in the village, arranges where the *jhums* are to be, and when and where a village is to move. His house is the poor-house of the village, and all orphans and others who have no means of support are received there, and get food in return for their labour. Formerly, a person who had committed some serious crime could enter the chief's house and thus escape vengeance.

When a child has been brought up in the chief's house, it is in some respects a slave. Girls are released on marriage, but the chief receives the marriage price. Boys have to buy their release at the cost of a metna. A chief sometimes buys a wife for a favourite slave, and sets him up in a separate house, and three years

after the man will be considered free, but his children are sometimes considered slaves. The chief's slaves are very well off, they wear the chief's ornaments and eat the best food to be got, and do no more work than they would have to do if they were not slaves.

The chief has several advisers who are called *Upa* or *Ramhual*. They have the first choice of *jhum* land, and sometimes the chief allows them to get a basket of rice from each house. The other village officials are the crier, who goes round the village after dark, shouting out the chief's orders, the blacksmith, and the *Puithiam* or sorcerer, who performs sacrifices in case of illness. These persons generally receive a donation of rice from each house in return for their services.

The chief receives from one to five baskets of rice according to the quality of the *jhum* land assigned to the cultivators ; he also receives a hindquarter of every animal killed in the chase, besides some other small dues.

There is a regular code of punishments for different offences, the chief of course receiving a share of every fine levied.

Criminal and Civil Justice.

The High Court has no jurisdiction in the hills, except in criminal cases in which European British subjects are concerned. The Superintendent exercises the powers of life and death, and can impose sentences of imprisonment up to the maximum amount provided for the offence. The death penalty or sentences of imprisonment for seven years and upwards require, however, the confirmation of the Local Government. Appeals lie to the Superintendent from the decisions of his assistants, who are invested with such powers, not exceeding the powers of a Magistrate of the first class, as the Lieutenant-Governor thinks fit. The rules for the administration of justice in the district will be found in the Supplement to the Manual of Local Rules and Orders, page 14. Litigation is discouraged and judicial work is light. Details will be found in Table V.

The garrison of the district is furnished by a battalion of military police with headquarters at Aijal. The men are armed with Martini-Henry rifles, mark IV, bayonets and kukris. The strength both of the military and civil police with the outposts held by them will be found in Table VII. There is a small subsidiary jail at Aijal with accommodation for 13 prisoners. The average daily population in 1904 was only 4.

Garrison.

The Lushais seem to appreciate the advantages of education more keenly than any of the hill tribes in Assam, except, perhaps, the Khasis. In 1901, no less than 25 per mille of the male Lushai population knew how to read and write. Some of them acquired this knowledge to enable them to assist in carrying out the census. In villages in which there was no one qualified to act as enumerator, a young man was selected and sent to Aijal, where he was taught how to read and write and instructed in the rules. Education is largely in the hands of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission at Aijal, and of the American Baptists at Lungleh. In Aijal the missionaries maintain an Upper Primary School in which Lushais are trained to act as village school masters. Instruction is given in the Lushai language, in books printed in Roman character, as Lushai has no character of its own. The village schools are situated at Aijal, Phulpui, Maite, Lungtan, Khuangleng, Mutthi, Zukbual, Hmunpui, Biate, Khandai, Maubawk, Khawlian and Rasiveng in the Aijal subdivision and at Serkawn, Khongbok (Jadala's), Khongbok (Lalluova's), Ngarchip

Education.

and Sethlun. The number of scholars will be found in Table VIII.

With the object of providing Lushais who have mastered the art of reading with something that they can read, a magazine is published once a month. Technical education also is not neglected, and Lushai boys are trained in the workshops of the Public Works Department.

Medical aspects.

Attempts have recently been made to record vital statistics in the hills, but as yet the returns cannot be said to possess very much value. Epidemics seldom occur, and fever is, doubtless, the most deadly lethal agent in the district. There are dispensaries at Aijal, Sairang, Tenzol, Kolosib, Lungleh, Balpui and Demagiri. At all of these places except Balpui there is accommodation for in-door patients. Worms, malarial fevers, ulcers, and diseases of the skin, diseases of the respiratory system, and rheumatic affections, are the ailments for which treatment is most frequently applied. Out-patients are also treated at the military police hospitals. The Lushais are said to have some faith in European medicines and they attend willingly at the hospitals, but they do not care for vaccination. They have never suffered from small-pox, and so do not appreciate the advantages of a prophylactic.

APPENDIX.

List of Tables.

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TABLE I.

Rainfall.

The number of years on which the average is calculated is shown against the name of each station.

Months.	Average rainfall in inches.		
	Aijal (7 years).	Lungleh (11 years).	Demagiri (23 years).
January	0·31	0·17	0·41
February	1·20	0·60	1·35
March	3·84	4·00	3·69
April	4·93	4·74	4·69
May	10·68	14·17	12·75
June	15·24	24·55	19·81
July	9·96	26·70	17·02
August	13·15	23·33	19·37
September	12·65	19·63	16·79
October	6·62	10·72	7·14
November	0·67	1·94	1·53
December	0·77	0·61	0·64
Total of year ...	80·02	131·16	105·19

TABLE II.

General statistics of population.

Particulars.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
POPULATION—			
1901.	82,434	39,004	43,430
1901.			
RELIGION—			
Hindus	3,373	2,639	734
Muhammadans ...	202	195	7
Animistics	78,657	36,038	42,619
Total Christians ...	45	31	14
Anglican Communion ...	17	14	3
Calvinist	27	17	10
Other religions ...	157	101	56
CIVIL CONDITION—			
Unmarried ...	43,999	22,017	21,982
Married	30,468	15,754	14,714
Widowed	7,967	1,233	6,734
LITERACY—			
Literate in Bengali ...	248	231	17
Literate in English ...	182	175	7
Illiterate	80,376	36,999	43,377
LANGUAGES SPOKEN—			
Lushai	71,990	32,009	39,981
Lakher	3,216	1,548	1,668
Chin	2,149	1,588	561

TABLE III.

Birth-place, race, caste and occupation.

	Persons.	Males.	Females.
BIRTH-PLACE—			
Born in district	76,509	34,963	41,546
Do. other parts of Province ...	1,140	718	422
Do. Chittagong ...	924	519	405
Do. other parts of Bengal ...	508	478	30
Do. United Provinces ...	215	202	13
Do. Nepal	1,438	1,234	204
Do. elsewhere	1,700	890	810
RACE AND CASTE—			
Lushai	36,382	16,730	19,652
Lushai (Hmar)	10,411	4,683	5,728
Do. (Paithe)... ...	2,810	1,315	1,495
Do. (Ralte)	13,827	6,205	7,622
Poi	15,039	6,960	8,079
OCCUPATION—			
Workers	46,667	23,969	22,698
Dependents	35,767	Not	available.
TOTAL SUPPORTED—			
Jhum cultivators ...	76,382	34,953	41,429

TABLE IV.

Prices of food staples in seers obtainable per rupee.

		Aijal.		
		Common rice.	Salt.	Matikalai.
1903 ...	2nd week of August ...	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$	5
1904 ...	2nd week of February ...	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$
	2nd week of August ...	8	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$
1905 ...	2nd week of February ...	8	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$
	2nd week of August ...			
1906...	2nd week of February ...			
	2nd week of August ...			
1907 ...	2nd week of February ...			
	2nd week of August ...			
1908 ...	2nd week of February ...			
	2nd week of August ...			
1909 ...	2nd week of February ...			
	2nd week of August ...			
1910 ...	2nd week of February ...			
	2nd week of August ...			
1911 ...	2nd week of February ...			
	2nd week of August ...			
1912 ...	2nd week of February ...			
	2nd week of August ...			

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal

Heads of crime.	1902. True.	1902. Detected.	1903. True.	1903. Detected.	1904. True.	1904. Detected.
AIJAL SUBDIVISION.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly, sections 143—153, 157, 158 and 159.	...	...	...	...		
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	1	1	...	...		
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder and culpable homicide, sections 302—304, 307, 308 and 396.	1	1	1	1		
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon, sections 324—326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	...	...	...	...		
(v) Serious criminal force, sections 353, 354, 356 and 357.	...	...	...	...		
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	...	...	...	...		
(vii) Dacoity, sections 395, 397 and 398.	...	...	...	...		
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning or maiming any animal, sections 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430—433 and 435—440.	1	1	...	...		
(ix) House breaking and serious house trespass, sections 449—452, 454, 455 and 457—460.	...	...	...	...		

V.

and Civil Justice.

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal

Heads of crime.	1902.		1903.		1904.	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
AIJAL SUBDIVISION—(*concld.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement, sections 341—344.	...	...	...	...		
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against the property.	1	...	...	...		
(xii) Theft, sections 379—382 ...	10	5	6	3		
(xiii) Receiving stolen property, sections 411 and 414.	1	...	3	3		
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house trespass, sections 453, 456, 447 and 448.	...	...	1	1		
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	1	...	...	...		
Total ...	16	8	11	8		
LUNGLEH SUBDIVISION.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly, sections 143—153, 157, 158 and 159.	...	...	...	...		
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	...	...	...	...		

V.

and Civil Justice—(contd.)

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal

Heads of crime.	1902.		1903.		1904.	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
LUNGLEH SUBDIVISION—(*contd.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder and culpable homicide, sections 302—304, 307, 308 and 396.	1	1	...	...		
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon, sections 324—326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	...	...	...	...		
(v) Serious criminal force, sections 353, 354, 356 and 357.	...	...	1	1		
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	...	...	...	...		
(vii) Dacoity, sections 395, 397 and 398.	...	...	...	...		
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning or maiming any animal, sections 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430—433 and 435—440.	...	...	...	...		
(ix) House breaking and serious house trespass, sections 449—452, 454, 455 and 457—460.	...	...	...	...		
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement, sections 341—344.	...	...	...	...		
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against property.	...	...	...	...		

V.

and Civil Justice—(contd.)

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal

Heads of crime.	1902.		1903.		1904.	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
LUNGLEH SUBDIVISION—(*concld.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(xii) Theft, sections 379—382 ...	1	...	6	2		
(xiii) Receiving stolen property, sections 411 and 414.	...	...	...	...		
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house trespass, sections 453, 456, 447 and 448.	...	...	...	...		
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	...	...	4	4		
Total ...	2	1	11	7		
DISTRICT TOTAL.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly, sections 143—153, 157, 158 and 159.	...	...	...	...		
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	1	1	...	...		
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder and culpable homicide, sections 302—304, 307, 308 and 396.	2	2	1	1		
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon, sections 324—326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	...	...	...	...		

V.

and Civil Justice—(contd.)

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal

Heads of crime.	1902.		1903.		1904	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
DISTRICT TOTAL—(*contd.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(v) Serious criminal force, sections 353, 354, 356 and 357.	...	...	1	1		
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	...	...	...	...		
(vii) Dacoity, sections 395, 397 and 398.	...	...	...	...		
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning or maiming any animal, sections 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430—433 and 435—440.	1	1	...	...		
(ix) House breaking and serious house trespass, sections 449—452, 454, 455 and 457—460.	...	...	...	...		
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement, sections 341—344.	...	...	...	...		
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against property.	1	...	...	...		
(xii) Theft, sections 379—382 ...	11	5	12	5		
(xiii) Receiving stolen property, sections 411 and 414.	1	...	3	3		
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house trespass, sections 453, 456, 447 and 448.	...	...	1	1		

V.

and Civil Justice—(contd.)

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal

Heads of crime.	1902.		1903.		1904.	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
DISTRICT TOTAL—(*concld.*)						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	1	...	4	4		
Total ...	18	9	22	15		
Civil Justice.						
Suits for money and movables ...		177		163		271
Title and other suits		101		46		86
Total ...		278		209		357

V.

and Civil Justice—(concld.)

1905.		1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Finance—

Principal heads.	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Land revenue	...	...	...	142
House tax	28,139	28,193	26,188	30,084
Ganja	680	360	580	350
Other heads of excise revenue ...	328	...	...	...
Assessed taxes	2,449	2,450	2,562	2,079
No. of Assessees per °/₀₀ ...	1	1	1	...
Forests	...	...	68	410
Total	31,596	31,003	29,398	33,065

VI.

Receipts.

1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.

TABLE VII.

Civil and military police stations and outposts in 1904.

Names of stations and outposts.	Sanctioned strength.			
	Sub-Inspectors.	Head Constables.	Constables.	*Total.*
CIVIL POLICE.				
Aijal Subdivision.				
Aijal P.S.	1	4	20	25
Kolosib O.P.	...	1	2	3
Sairang O.P.	...	1	5	6
Lungleh Subdivision.				
Demagiri P.S.	1	2	10	13
Lungleh P.S.	...	1	3	4

MILITARY POLICE.*	Distance from headquarters.	Officers.	Non-commissioned officers and men.
	Miles.		
Champhai	91	1	50
Lungleh	107⅔	2 Companies.	
North Vonlaiphai	91	1	30
South Do.	110½	1	50
Total expenditure	Rs. 3,75,313		

* The sanctioned strength of the force is 99 officers and 701 men.

TABLE VIII.

Education.

	1900-01.	1901-02.	1902-03.	1903-04.	1904-05.	1905-06.	1906-07.	1907-08.	1908-09.	1909-10.	1910-11.	1911-12.
UPPER PRIMARY SCHOOLS.												
Number	...	...	...	1								
Number of boys reading in upper primary classes.	...	...	...	16								
Number of boys reading in lower primary classes.	...	...	...	...								
LOWER PRIMARY SCHOOLS.												
Number	3	4	5	13								
Number of boys reading in three upper classes. }	(*a*)86	(*a*)230	225	270								
Number of boys reading in lower classes, }			97	408								
FEMALE EDUCATION.												
Number of girls' schools	...	...	...	3								
,, ,, ,, reading (whether in girls' or in boys' schools) in												
Upper primary schools	...	...	...	5								
Lower primary schools	...	19	13	56								

(*a*) Separate figures not available.

TABLE IX.

Medical.

Particulars.	Aijal. 1901.	Lungleh. 1901.	Total District. 1901.
Number of dispensaries	4	2	6
Daily average number of in-door patients	23·50	6·00	29·50
" " " out-door "	50·75	34·86	85·61
Cases treated	12,428	7,679	20,107
Operations performed	214	66	280
Total income ... ... Rs.	8,021	2,996	11,017
Income from Government ... Rs.	8,021	2,996	11,017
Total expenditure ... Rs.	8,021	2,996	11,017
Expenditure on establishment Rs.	4,621	2,047	6,668
Ratio per mille of persons vaccinated ...	Not available		17·38
Cost per case ... ... Rs.	Do.		0-5-1

TABLE

Dispen-

Name of dispensary.	1900.		1901.		1902.		1903.		1904.		1905.	
	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	
Aijal ...	4,981	6,331	4,828	6,650	5,869	9,364	3,577	9,692	5,894	10,076		
Sairang...	1,117	2,805	1,151	2,452	1,464	2,564	1,237	2,568	1,322	1,492		
Tenzol ...	711	1,825	1,096	2,644	1,212	3,213	1,163	3,898	1,208	3,987		
Kolosib...	715	580	946	682	893	690	842	941	1,029	870		
Balpui ...	904	2,324	1,045	6,145	1,207	5,613	884	5,270	767	4,912		
Demagiri	1,899	1,382	1,951	1,534	2,245	1,636	1,658	1,782	1,711	1,800		
Lungleh	...	...	...	...	2,791	5,250	3,198	6,266	2,494	7,311		

X.

saries.

1906.		1907.		1908.		1909.		1910.		1911.		1912.	
Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.
Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	

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